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FOR THE LITERARY MAGAZINE.

THOMAS JEFFERSON.

WITH A PORTRAIT.

THE biography of such a man as Thomas Jefferson can only be drawn up by his own hand, and a true judgment of his merits can only be formed by future generations. When the animosities of the present age have been laid asleep by time, his character and actions may rise to the view in their native and proper colours, and the meed of blame or of praise will be conferred on him, in the degree to which he is justly entitled to it.

In consequence of living in a country, where civil liberty is enjoyed with fewer curbs and restraints than were ever before known; where the honours and riches of the state are open to unbounded competition; where the voluntary suffrages of mankind are the only passport to political power, and their suffrages are influenced by the esteem which individuals may be able to acquire for their wisdom and virtue, the intellectual and moral character of the candidates for public favour become objects of universal and rigid scrutiny: and such is the influence of the passions, that the same man, and the same conduct, is the worst or

best, the brightest or darkest, according to the medium through which the gazer examines it. As our passions and interests dictate, our competitors are transformed into monsters and demons, and our partizans or champions into angels and divinities: every faulty speck in the character of the former spreads a deep and horrid black over the whole surface, while the dark spots in the *disk* of the latter are wholly overpowered and lost in the blaze of surrounding brightness.

All this has been eminently true of our present subject. No man has been more applauded or more censured, because no man's situation has been connected in a more intimate manner with the hopes and fears of his fellow citizens. A large number have laboured for his elevation, with all the zeal which our own interest is sure to inspire; while a number, scarcely less considerable, have laboured to degrade him, with all the perseverance and anxiety which men usually display to prevent their own fall.

In this state of things, it would be highly absurd, in a publication like

the present, to enter into investigations of the character and conduct of this eminent personage. It would be equally impossible to escape the indignation of his friends or enemies, and nobody is neuter in this controversy, or to destroy that bias in the writer's own mind, which, whether favourable or unpropitious to the person in view, is necessarily adverse and destructive to candour and truth. The general events of his life might be detailed; but they form a barren catalogue, when they consist of mere dates and names, and besides are too universally known to justify their formal repetition. That Mr. Jefferson is a native of Virginia; that, though born to affluence, he studied the law as his profession; that he took an active and important part in the early scenes of the revolution, was a member of the state and national legislatures, and assisted in the formation of laws and constitutions; that he has been successively ambassador, minister of state, vice-president, and finally president, of the United States, are all events in his life familiarly known, among foreigners and his own countrymen: that he has been distinguished by his attachment to the sciences and arts, and has built up a noble monument to his own literary glory, and to the honour of his native state, in his description of Virginia, are equally well known to the studious part of mankind.

To these few remarks we shall only add our fervent wish, that Mr. Jefferson, who is so well acquainted with the pen, may exercise it in recording the events of his own life. We are not always proper judges of our *relative* merit, nor can we see ourselves as *others see us*; but since a man is best acquainted with his own motives to action, and since the most important information relative to any one is connected with the light in which he views himself, it seems to be the duty of every eminent person to be his own biographer. Independently of these claims to curiosity which the history of

Mr. Jefferson possesses for its own sake, his life has been too intimately connected with the history of his country, not to be particularly worthy of being recorded by his own hand.

For the Literary Magazine.

MILTON'S RELIGION.

NOBODY pays much regard to a poet's creed. Men of thought, and particularly men of imagination, when they become thinkers, are prone to changes: they must not, however, be said to veer about like weathercocks, at the mercy of the winds; but through the ordinary progress of human existence and human intellect, they rather vary like the seasons of the year. It is the order of thought, producing a variety of sentiment.

Milton was at first a calvinist, and readers of his life will recollect that he was a baptist. Toland, in his life of him, says, that he also became an arminian, if not an arian. Perhaps he at last became a kind of quaker, his confidential amanuensis being of that persuasion. He went to no place of worship, nor, though well acquainted with the scriptures, and a student in them, had he any family worship.

Bishop Newton says, that no such man as Milton ever became an unbeliever. Johnson speaks more like an accurate man. It is much easier to say what he was not, than what he was.

For the Literary Magazine.

COWPER'S RELIGION.

COWPER'S religion was either altogether methodism, or strongly tinged with the peculiarities of this sect. In outward show and practice, he was, however, an adherent to the

church of England, and perhaps carried his rigours no further than many the most eminent of that persuasion have done.

Cowper's intimate connection with the Threemorton family, as mentioned in his life by Hayley, and his even platonic attachment to the lady of this family, is a striking proof of the charity and candour of the poet's mind, as well, indeed, as of the minds of his friends, who were rigid Roman catholics.

Cowper's religious creed, indeed, is a point of very small importance, since he may justly be considered as a maniac, and his example and precepts, instead of being favourable to true piety, may be deemed adverse to it, since, in his case, it was the parent of exquisite though fantastic misery, and appears, at no time, to have stimulated him to active and manly usefulness. With him, religion was matter of sentiment and feeling rather than an active principle, prolific of felicity, fortitude, and perseverance. Happiness may be regarded as the test of piety and virtue (for *virtue* is only piety in action); for though men are sometimes joyous or serene without virtue and piety, it is impossible to be virtuous and pious without being joyous or serene. They who pass for pious and good, and yet are a prey to sorrow, impatience, and repining, afford an incontestible proof that either their principles or practices are vicious and erroneous.

The following lines of Cowper occur no where in his works, but are perhaps more descriptive of his mental situation than any thing of his we meet with in print:

Cæsus amor meus est, et nostro crimine,
cujus,
Ah! cujus posthinc potero latitare sub
alis?

Whether do these lines refer to an earthly or a heavenly love? It is true in both senses, since the idol of his youthful affections met an untimely death for his sake, though not for his fault.

For the Literary Magazine.

ORIGIN OF GAZETTES.

THEOPHRASTUS RENAUDOT, a physician of Paris, picked up news from all quarters, to amuse his patients; he presently became more in request than any of his brethren; but as a whole city is not ill, or at least don't imagine itself to be so, he began to reflect at the end of some years, that he might gain a more considerable income by giving a paper every week, containing the news of different countries. A permission was necessary; he obtained it, with an exclusive privilege, in 1632. Such papers had been in use for a considerable time at Venice, and were called gazettes, because a small piece of money, called gazetta, was paid for the reading of them. This is the origin of our gazette, and its name. About ten years after, they were common in England, by the name of mercuries.

For the Literary Magazine.

NATURE OF VIRTUE.

THE celebrated Jonathan Edwards wrote a profound treatise on the nature of true virtue. The following anecdote from Joinville, the historian, of the last great expedition of the French to Syria and Egypt, before that of the present *imperator Gallorum*, will show that the same sentiment and doctrine may occur to the most dissimilar minds and in the most opposite situations.

Joinville says, "Friar Yves, of Brittany, being skilled in the language of the Saracens, was employed as interpreter between St. Louis and the ambassadors from the king of Damascus. St. Louis was then in Acre, and the ambassadors had come there to treat with him. The friar, in passing between the king's lodging and that of the ambassadors, was one day encountered in

the street by a very aged woman, having in her right hand a pot of burning coals, and in her left a pitcher of water, 'Woman,' said father Yves, 'what art thou about to do with these live coals in thine hand?' 'To burn paradise,' answered she. 'And what with the water?' 'To extinguish the flames of hell.' Friar Yves then asked, how she could talk so? Her reply was, 'That no person may do good in this world, to obtain a reward in paradise; and that none may refrain from sin, for fear of the torments of hell; but that we may all do good, out of pure love to God, our creator and supreme good!' Friar Yves, astonished at the woman's wisdom, passed on without reply."

This anecdote I find in the blank page of Edwards' treatise, and whether we consider it as a real incident, or merely as an apologue, and the last is most probable, whether the old woman of Acre or the *old woman* Joinville, was the advocate of this doctrine, it is a remarkable coincidence between the great modern metaphysician and divine, and a hero of the crusades, which were undertaken for the express purpose of redeeming the souls of the adventurers from the punishment due to their crimes in a future world.

For the Literary Magazine.

THE JEWISH HIGH PRIEST.

ONE of the strange things of the present century, is the painting and engraving of the portrait of the *high priest of the Jews*, by a celebrated British artist. Such a one was published in London during the present year. The Turkish sultan, Selim, who is the caliph or high priest of the Mohammedans, assigned a place in his secret cabinet to a portrait of lord Nelson: another strange thing, and which are humble and familiar, indeed, but striking, indications of the progress of opinion to break down those uncharitable bars which

make the votaries of different religions strangers and enemies to each other.

Successive ages are distinguished by new topics of dispute and animosity, and in process of time, nations frequently change sides with each other. Britain was, a century ago, the head of the enemies of the Romish faith, and France of its friends and adherents. Lately, France became the grand foe, and Britain the powerful and venerable champion, unless, indeed, this honour may be supposed to have been divided between Britain and Russia, both equally infidels and aliens at Rome.

The Goldsmids, Jews of London, have been caressed by the dukes, archbishops, and judges of Great Britain; nay, they have been familiarly visited by the king and queen, and they are ranked with the best and most useful friends of his majesty. The time may doubtless come, when the mufti of Stamboli, the patriarch of Moscow, the pontifex maximus of Rome, and his grace of Canterbury may sit down to a sociable chit chat with the Hebrew arch-priest.

For the Literary Magazine.

THE WINTER'S DAY.

IT is certainly one of the most remarkable lineaments of the present age, that women have assumed, in some degree, the equality with men. Professions which have heretofore been confined to the male sex, are now familiarly exercised by the other. These observations, however, are applicable more to Europe than America, and more to England than any part of Europe. There we find eminent writers, poets, fabulists, painters, and engravers among women, and while the path they have taken is as honourable as any other, their progress in this path is as rapid and illustrious as any of their compeers among the manly votaries can boast.

These thoughts were particularly suggested by a very curious work now before me, in which the genius of three ladies, in different departments, are happily and splendidly combined. It is a poem of the highest merit, every stanza of which has been embellished by the pencil, and the picture been consigned to ten thousand hands by the magic of the graver. Mrs. Robinson is the poet, Maria Cosway the painter, and Caroline Watson the engraver.

I shall take the liberty of giving you a short account of this singular publication, and hope it may afford to your judicious readers some inducement to examine the original. The verse is divided into twelve stanzas, each of which has been the subject of a picture. The poem is entitled the winter's day, and the following are the scenes described by the pen's magic, and the still superior magic of the pencil.

NO. I.

"Is it in mansion rich and gay,
On downy beds or couches warm,
That *Nature* owns the *wint'ry day*,
And shrinks to hear the howling
storm?

Ah! No!"

NO. II.

"'Tis on the bleak and barren heath,
Where Misery feels the shaft of death,
As to the dark and freezing grave
Her children, not a friend to save,
Unheeded go!"

The first print represents a woman of fashion, in a room superbly furnished, reclining upon a couch near a blazing fire, before which, on a tasselled cushion, lies a little French lap-dog. The festooned curtain over the sofa, the Etruscan ornaments on the chimney-piece, and the decorations of the toilet-table exhibit a good picture of the interior splendour of a fashionable dressing-room.

To this ostentatious display of modern opulence, the next picture exhibits a striking contrast. It presents to us a poor barefooted and unaccommodated outcast of society,

seated on the cold earth, in the midst of a barren heath, far from the busy haunts of men, and exposed "to the pelting of the pitiless storm;" her basket of ballads by her side; one of her children crept shivering under her scanty cloak, and the other dead at her feet.

NO. III.

"Is it in chambers silken-drest,
At tables which profusions heap,
Is it on pillows soft to rest,
In dreams of long and balmy sleep!
Ah! No!"

NO. IV.

"'Tis in the rushy hut obscure,
Where Poverty's low sons endure:
And scantely daring to repine,
On a straw pallet, mute, recline,
O'erwhelm'd with woe."

In No. III, the fair artist has delineated a woman of fashion at her matin meal, which she takes in bed, attended by her waiting-maid, and surrounded by her children, with a well spread breakfast table and comfortable fire. As an *or molu* clock is displayed on the chimney-piece, Mrs. Cosway might have marked the hour at which our people of the *ton* begin what they call their day.

In opposition to this, we have, in No. IV, a poor half-naked family, employed in their daily labour, which, so far from furnishing them with any of the *comforts*, hardly supplies them with the *necessaries* of life.

NO. V.

"Is it to flaunt in warm attire,
To laugh, and feast, and dance, and
sing,
To crowd around the blazing fire,
And make the roofs with revels ring?
Ah! No!"

NO. VI.

"'Tis on the *prison's* flinty floor,
'Tis where the deafening whirlwinds
roar,
'Tis when the sea-boy on the mast
Hears the wave clamouring at the blast,
And looks below!"

As song and dance is so much the business of the present race of fashionable females, there is some

propriety in representing such a party, so employed.

This is contrasted by the horrors of a prison, to the floor of which a poor old man is chained, accompanied by a young female, whom we may suppose his daughter, kneeling, lifting up her eyes to heaven, and praying for his deliverance..... Through the iron-grating of the prison, we have a view of a vessel in a thunder storm.

NO. VII.

"Is it beneath the taper's ray
The banquet's luxury to share,
And waste the midnight hours away,
With *Fashion's* idle votaries there?
Ah! No!"

NO. VIII.

"'Tis in the cheerless naked room,
Where Misery's victims wait their doom,
Where a fond mother famish'd dies,
While forth a frantic father flies
Man's desperate foe!"

No. VII may possibly be a view of a fashionable breakfast, where profusion pours her copious stores. This luxurious prodigality is, in the next print, contrasted by a beautiful female, sunk to the floor, exhausted by hunger, and perishing... while a naked infant is seeking nourishment from her breast, and the frantic father rushing out of the room, as the pen has well described him....*Man's* desperate foe!

NO. IX.

"Is it to lavish Fortune's store
In vain, fantastic empty joys?
To scatter round the glittering ore,
And worship Folly's gilded toys?
Ah! No!"

NO. X.

"'Tis in the silent spot obscure
Where, forc'd all sorrows to endure,
Pale *Genius* turns, Oh! lesson sad!
To court the vain, and on the bad
False praise bestow!"

In No. IX we have a number of female fashionables purchasing finery from a milliner; and in No. X, an allegorical figure of *Genius* contemplating the base of a lofty column,

on which we may suppose there will be inscribed a false panegyric.

NO. XI.

"Is it where *gamesters* thronging round,
Their shining heaps of wealth display?
Where *Vice's* fashion'd tribes are found,
Sporting their senseless hours away?
Ah! No!"

NO. XII.

"'Tis where neglected *Merit* sighs,
Where *Hope*, exhausted, silent dies,
Where *virtue* starves by pride oppress'd,
'Till every stream that warms the breast
Forbears to flow!"

In No. XI, we have the representation of a fashionable party, eagerly attempting to plunder each other at a gaming-table, to which

With equal haste they run,
Some to undo, and some to be undone.

For the Literary Magazine.

A BEAR FIGHT.

The following anecdote was communicated by Mr. Alex. Wilson to Mr. Lawson, engraver, of this city, by whom it was handed to the editor.

A GENTLEMAN from Cayuga county, between the Seneca and Cayuga lakes, relates, that a Mr. Wayborne, a farmer in Ovid township, went out one afternoon through the woods in search of his horses, taking with him his rifle, with the only load of ammunition he had in the house. On his return home, about an hour before dusk, he perceived a very large bear crossing the path; on which he instantly fired, and the bear fell, but immediately recovering his legs, made for a deep ravine, a short way a-head. Here he tracked him awhile by the blood; but night coming on, and expecting to find him dead in the morning, he returned home. A little after day-break the next morning, taking a pitchfork and hatchet, and his son, a boy of ten or eleven years of age,

with him, he proceeded to the place in quest of the animal. The glen or ravine, into which he had disappeared the evening before, is eighty or ninety feet from the top of the banks to the bottom of the brook below: down this precipice a stream of three or four yards in breadth is precipitated in one unbroken sheet, and forming a circular bason or pool, winds away among thick underwood below.

After reconnoitering every probable place of retreat, he at length discovered the bear, who had made his way up the other side of the ravine, as far as the rocks would admit him, and sat under a projecting cliff, steadfastly eyeing the motions of his enemy.

Wayborne desiring his boy to remain where he was, took the pitchfork, and, descending to the bottom, determined to attack him from below.

The bear kept his position until he got within six or seven feet, when, on the instant of making a stab with the pitchfork, he found himself grappled by Bruin, and both together rolled down towards the pond, at least twenty or twenty-five feet, the bear munching his left arm and breast, and hugging him almost to suffocation. By great exertion he forced his right arm partly down his throat and in that manner endeavoured to strangle him, but was once more hurled headlong down through the bushes, a greater distance than before, into the water. Here, finding the bear gaining on him, he made one desperate effort, and forced his head partly under water, and repeating his exertions, at length weakened the animal so much, that calling to his boy, who stood on the other side, in a state little short of distraction for the fate of his father, he sunk the edge of the hatchet, by repeated blows, into his brain.

Wayborne, though a robust muscular man, was with great difficulty able to crawl home, where he lay for upwards of three weeks with his wounds, his arm being mashed from the shoulder to the elbow into

the bone, and his breast severely mangled. The bear weighed upwards of 420 pounds.

For the Literary Magazine.

ON DOUBLE ENDINGS IN RHYME.

ANACREON. ODE 40.

ONCE, a bee, unseen while sleeping,
Touch'd by Love, from rose-buds
creeping,

Stung the boy, who blood espying
On his finger, fell a-crying:
Then, both feet and pinions straining,
Flew to Venus, thus complaining:

"Oh! mamma, mamma, I'm dying,
Me a little dragon spying,

Which the ploughman-tribe, so stupid,
Call a bee, has bit your Cupid."

"Ah!" quoth Venus, smiling
shrewdly,

"If a bee can wound so rudely,
Cupid, think how sharp the sorrows
Caus'd by thy envenom'd arrows!"

The playful sweetness of Anacreon is happily imitated in this production, and may be cited as a striking example of the efficacy of the endings in a *double rhyme*.

In tracing the history of various languages, we often find that nations have wantonly abandoned advantages of expression or construction, which succeeding ages could not easily revive. It is universally acknowledged that the fineness and delicacy introduced into the Italian language, by their great variety of diminutives and augmentatives, highly improves their poetry, and contributes, perhaps, not a little to that refinement of national taste for which they have long been celebrated. The poets who first reformed the French language, forming themselves on the Greek, Italian, and Provençal models, were fully sensible of the value of these words in giving a grace and delicacy to poetic painting. They copied their masters largely in this respect, and this single circumstance frequently renders their productions (notwith-

standing the obscurity of their language) far more interesting than the modern French poetry, which, under false notions of refinement, has pruned away most of the luxuriances of verse. At present it is remarkable enough that this peculiarity of language, both in French and English, is mostly confined to *provincialisms*: the Scotch dialect has many diminutives unknown to what is called *pure* English; and the same observation may be made on the dialects of Provence, Languedoc, &c. compared with the pure French.

But though in the formation of words the English language is thus defective, the construction of our verse has a much greater latitude, and enables the poet to adapt his expression to his subject with a happy facility. I am the more induced to make these observations by having observed, of late, many attempts at novelty in metre, some of which have been attended with a very admirable effect, whilst the failure of others is only to be attributed to a want of observation with regard to the effect produced on an English ear by certain successions of sounds. It is, perhaps, an erroneous idea that such experiments cannot well be reduced to systematic accuracy. I do not mean here to lay down the general principles of such a science, nor would such a task be easy; I shall content myself therefore with suggesting, that the previous productions of our poets have sufficiently exemplified the general power of those successions of sound which constitute most of our metres. With regard to the double rhyme (or that whose force falls on the penultima) it is of so soft and flowing a nature, and approaches so near to the ease of familiar discourse, that it is seldom used but in combination with others, to which it communicates its own ease, making the light more humorous, and giving to the serious a cast of tenderness. The little poem given above is, perhaps, of the only kind which would admit this metre

unmixed; its shortness prevents it from producing a jingle on the ear, and the mixture of tenderness and pleasantry in the subject corresponds with the flowing ease of the construction.

For the Literary Magazine.

ECONOMY OF LIGHT.

From the French of M. Hassenfratz.

COUNT RUMFORD, who extended his view to so many corners of the kitchen, in order to cheapen and simplify the means of subsistence, has not been forgetful of the important department of the domestic system, relative to lamps and candles. After discussing, with great minuteness, the various methods of cooking victuals with the least expence of fuel, of warming parlours and chambers with the least quantity of fire, he justly thought it not unworthy of his attention to investigate the means of lighting rooms in the cheapest and succinctest manner. His zeal, in this respect, has been emulated by the French, and the government thought proper to employ a person for the express purpose of ascertaining the best mode of obtaining light from the substances usually employed. Some account of these experiments will be curious to many, and certainly has a manifest tendency to be useful to all.... They differ in some degree from those of count Rumford.

The materials of Mr. H.'s experiments were wax, spermaceti, and tallow candles, fish-oil, oil of colseed, and of poppy-seeds. In using these oils, both the Argand and common lamps were employed. The wicks of the latter were round, containing thirty-six cotton threads. The tallow and spermaceti candles were mould, six to the pound. The wax candles five to the pound. The method for determining the comparative intensity of the lights consisted in placing the two luminous bodies

at different distances on white paper, putting a small opaque cylinder near this paper, and gradually removing the light, till the shadow produced by each be of the same intensity. The intensity of the light is then in proportion to the squares of the distances of the luminous bodies, from the line of union of their two shadows on the white paper. Count Rumford used the Argand lamp as a standard for comparison; but as the intensity of its light varies according to the height of the wick, Mr. H. preferred a wax candle, making using of it soon after it was lighted. When two luminous bodies of different intensities are put in comparison with each other, the shadows are of two colours. That from the weakest light is blue, and from the strongest, red. When the lights of two different combustible bodies are compared, they are either red or blue in a compound ratio of the colour and intensity. Thus in comparing the shadows from different luminous bodies, they will be red or blue respectively, in the following order:

Light of the sun.
 ————— the moon.

Light of Argand lamps.

———— tallow candles.

———— wax ditto.

———— spermaceti ditto.

———— common lamps.

That is, when a body is illuminated by the sun and by any other substance, the shadow of the former is red, and of the latter, blue. In like manner, the shadow from an Argand lamp is red, when placed by that of a tallow candle, which is blue.

The following table will show the proportional distance that different luminous bodies should be placed to produce an equally intense shadow from the same object.

The second column gives the proportional intensity of each light, which is known to be in proportion to the squares of the distances of luminous bodies giving the same depth of shadow.

The third column shows the quantity of combustible matter consumed in the hour by each mode of giving light, which Mr. H. calculates from the average of many repeated experiments.

		Dist.	Intensity.	Quantity consumed per hour.	Quantity required for equal intensities.
Argand lamps with	{ Oil of poppy seed	10	10.000	23	23
	{ — of fishes	10	10.000	23.77	23.77
	{ — of cole seed	9.246	8.549	14.18	16.59
Common lamps with	{ Oil of cole seed	6.774	4.588	8.81	19.2
	{ — of fishes	6.524	4.556	9.14	20.06
	{ — of poppy seed	5.917	3.501	7.05	20.14
	Spermaceti candle	5.917	3.501	9.23	26.37
	Old tallow candle	5.473	2.995	7.54	25.17
	New ditto	5.473	2.995	8.23	27.48
	Wax candle	4.275	1.827	9.54	53

The relative quantity of combustible matter required to produce *equal* lights at equal distances, may be obtained by a simple rule of proportion from the above data. Thus, if a given intensity of light, expressed by 3.501, has been produced by a consumption of 9.23 of spermaceti in the hour, the same luminous body will produce a light of 10.000, by consuming

$$10.000 \times 9.23$$

in the same time a quantity of spermaceti = $\frac{10.000 \times 9.23}{3.501} = 26.37$. There-

fore we may add to the table a fourth column, expressing the quantity of combustible which each body must consume to produce a light of 10.000.

From what has been laid down, it will also appear, that the number of lights required to produce a given light will be as follows: to produce a light equal to 100 Argand lamps, burning poppy seed oil, it will require

100 Argand lamps, with fish oil	285 Spermaceti candles
117 ————— with cole seed oil	333 Tallow ditto
218 Common lamps, with cole seed oil	546 Wax ditto
219 ————— with fish oil	
285 ————— with poppy seed oil	

Mr. H. next takes notice of the comparative price of these articles, by which he finds, that in Paris the most expensive light is that produced from wax candles, and the most economical, that from oil of cole-seed, burned in Argand lamps. What is it in Philadelphia?

The chief difference between the the Argand and common lamp is, that in the latter much of the oil is volatilized without combustion, and hence its unpleasant smell; whereas in the former, the heat is so great at the top of the wick, that all the oil is decomposed in passing through, the disposition of the wick allowing the free access of air to assist combustion. It should therefore follow, that the Argand lamp consumes less fuel to produce a given light than the common lamp, and this is the opinion of count Rumford. Yet there are two circumstances that prevent the full effect of the complete combustion in the Argand lamp. The one is, that the glass cylinder absorbs a part of the rays of light as they pass through; the other, that the column of light proceeding from the inner surface of the wick, is, in part lost, by being obliged to pass through that from the outer surface. Count Rumford allows the first cause of diminution of light, and estimates it at .1854, but not the latter. Mr. H. in repeating count R's experiments, asserts, that when two candles are placed so that the light of the one is obliged to pass through that of the other, the sum of the light so produced, is not so strong as when they are placed side by side; for in the first case,

a part of the hindmost light is absorbed by the foremost.

For the Literary Magazine.

ON COAL AS A FUEL IN AMERICA.

To the Editor, &c.

SIR,

THE population of the northern states being considerable, and increasing with great rapidity, we view the present generation enjoying all the blessings that the land can afford; but when we reflect on what will follow from the situation of these states with respect to wood and timber, it must appear evident to every individual, and the public in general, that something ought to be done to remedy a growing evil; an evil, which, in the course of fifteen or twenty years, will be severely felt by the lower class of people, and, we are sorry to say, that this is the case in many of the southern countries at present.

It is my intention to submit to your consideration the necessary means of procuring this valuable necessary of life; for this purpose I would wish to draw your attention to the following query: Would it not be the interest of the United States to establish a regular coal trade from Virginia to the northern states?

The advantages, which, in my opinion, might be derived from this trade would be great, not only to individuals, but the public at large.

The large quantities of coal

which, we are informed, are to be found in Virginia, and the numerous streams and creeks, which rise and flow through the state, and empty into the Chesapeake and Atlantic Ocean, give us every reason to suppose that the coal could be procured at a small expence; and if a regular coal-trade were carried on, it could be afforded, at the cities and towns which are bordering on the sea, and adjacent to the navigable rivers, at a smaller expence than wood.

It is well known that wood-land in Connecticut, Rhode Island, and the eastern parts of Massachusetts, is very scarce, particularly in the counties of Hartford, Newhaven, New London, Fairfield; and throughout Rhode Island, and the eastern counties of Massachusetts; the timber in these counties is almost entirely cleared off the land. The wood-land in the southern and eastern parts of Connecticut has, within the short space of five years, risen nearly two hundred per cent. This great rise of wood-land caused many people to be more prudent of fuel than formerly: the use of stoves are introduced as a mean of saving fuel, and we are happy in seeing these stoves obtain so rapid an introduction in the villages about: but, notwithstanding, there are many who consider stoves as injurious to health, and others who calculate the expence of getting one erected to be more than the expence of fuel saved thereby, and therefore continue to consume large quantities of fuel in a fire-place, perhaps six or eight feet wide, and nearly five feet deep! The large quantities of fuel consumed in one of these fire-places in one winter must be great, perhaps two-thirds more than would necessarily be consumed in a stove! But we shall not at present enlarge upon this subject, but for an ample description of building fire-places in order to save fuel, and many other interesting articles, we refer our readers to count Rumford's essays.

Many people with large families have removed from the eastern parts of Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut, into the northern parts of the state of New York*, almost entirely on account of the scarcity of wood-land; the farmers, in general, are anxious to get into their possession whatever wood-land they can, offering almost any price to obtain it; having an idea that in a few years these counties bordering on the Atlantic Ocean, the Connecticut, Thames, and many other small rivers, will be obliged to have recourse to other parts for timber and wood. And it must appear evident to every citizen and farmer, that, in the course of a few years, those counties above mentioned, will be entirely destitute of timber and wood-land. It therefore becomes necessary that the citizens of those states should take this matter into serious consideration. If there is not mines of coal to be found in these states, which I am apprehensive there is, they ought to establish a regular trade from Virginia.

But let us enquire if there are not mines of coal to be found in these states? has any person attempted to discover any? not to my knowledge; I do not at present recollect of hearing of any person finding any thing similar to that of coal, excepting one instance, which was about two years since: the late Dr. Isaac Andrews, of Berlin (Connecticut), informed me, that as he was going up the Connecticut river in a schooner, that just below Middleton the schooner was obliged, on account of a head wind, to come to an anchor, where they had occasion to lie nearly two days. On the second day the captain of the schooner and himself

* The great increase of population of the state of New York within these ten years past may in truth be ascribed to this cause; the emigration from Rhode Island and Connecticut has been uncommonly great within that period, and we have reason to expect that more than one third of the population has emigrated from these states.

went on shore on the eastern side of the river, where, having walked about half a mile, they discovered a kind of coal, which appeared to be something similar to the Liverpool pit coal. The Dr. being desirous of finding whether it was really coal, resolved to carry some pieces back with him, in order to see whether it would burn; on putting some pieces of it on a fire of wood he found it to burn pretty well: it being burnt with wood, he could not determine how much heat it produced. The Dr. informed me, that he was very desirous of returning to see what quantity of this coal there appeared to be, but the wind having shifted to the south, they were under the necessity of proceeding up the river. He expressed much regret that he had not time to observe more particularly this spot of ground, as in his opinion there appeared to be a mine of this coal.

From this we may conclude, that there is a mine of coal to be found at or about this place, and perhaps in various parts of the New England states; but if this be the case, why have they not been discovered? why have not the learned men of these states paid more particular attention to this important business, which would not only be a benefit to themselves, but the public in general? to account for the neglect of so important a discovery is beyond our comprehension, but we are still in hopes that there are some persons who will attend more particularly to this important business.

From the situation of these states, it appears necessary that some mode of procuring coal, or some other substances for the consumption of fire, instead of wood, ought immediately to be pursued. For this purpose, I submit to your consideration the necessity of establishing a regular coal trade from Virginia to the eastern states, which, from circumstances, we consider highly necessary: but from our not being well acquainted with the situation of Virginia with respect to coal, whether it abounds with it, or not,

we shall not determine, but leave it for some one better acquainted with the subject.

We shall conclude with observing to you, that in our opinion, it is of great importance to the public, particular to the eastern states, that some necessary means should be adopted in order to carry it into execution.

A.

For the Literary Magazine.

MEANS OF JUDGING OF THE AIR
AND WEATHER.

To the Editor, &c.

The following information on subjects interesting to every body, has been carefully collected from the best and most modern sources, and may be useful to more than a few of your readers.

AS a *standard*, thirty inches may be assumed as the natural height of the barometer at the level of the sea, in most temperatures between 32 and 82 degrees. And knowing the true height of any part of the earth, we may, by subtracting that height, expressed in fathoms, from the log. of 30, viz. .477121, find the log. which indicates the number of inches at which, as its natural mean, the mercury should stand at that height over the level of the sea.... Thus, supposing the height to be 87 feet, equal to 14.50 fathoms, then $.477121 - 14.50 = .475671$, which is the log. of 29.9; and this is the natural mean height of the barometer at the elevation of eighty-seven feet above the level of the sea.

Evaporation is the conversion of a liquid (and even frequently of a solid) into an invisible fluid. This conversion may be effected either naturally or artificially: that produced by nature is always accompanied by contact with the atmosphere; the artificial is producible in contact with the atmosphere, or even *in vacuo*.

In the common course of nature, five causes concur in producing evaporation; viz. heat; affinity to the atmospheric air; agitation; electricity; and light.

I. The evaporation by HEAT is opposed by the attraction of cohesion and external pressure. A diminution of the density of the atmosphere, amounting to one third, doubles the quantity of evaporation.

The evaporation of water exposed to the air is increased or diminished by various circumstances, some relative to *water*, and some to *air*.... Those relative to *water*, are, (1) Its temperature; (2) Its surface: hence the increase of surface given to pans in salt-works, by which, from the air alone, water containing only one per cent. of common salt, is so far evaporated that the residue contains 20 per cent.; (3) Its purity: it is well known that concentrated solutions of most salts evaporate much more slowly than pure water in the same circumstances.

Evaporation of water with regard to the *air* depends, (1) On the temperature. If the water and air be of the same temperature, evaporation proceeds most slowly; if the air be *warmer* than the water, and its temperature between 60 and 70 deg. and if the water be 14 degrees colder, or more, there is no evaporation; the nearer water approaches to the temperature of the air, and yet remains one or two degrees below it, the more is evaporation accelerated. When the *air is colder* than the water exposed to it, the result, with respect to evaporation, is exactly the reverse of what happens when the water is the colder of the two. If the temperature of the water be constant; and that of the air, in one case some degrees hotter, and in another case colder than water, by an equal number of degrees, the evaporation would be greater in the hotter air; but on the other hand, hot air deposits moisture on water, that is some degrees colder than itself.

II. Of the influence of affinity.... This attraction is limited by *satura-*

tion, and is measured by the hygrometer. The hygrometer invented by Saussure consists of a single human hair, kept in a state of tension by the weight of a few grains, and rolled on a pulley, to which an index is fixed. The hair is lengthened by moisture, and contracted by dryness.

As saturability in a given heat, and also an increase of heat, promote evaporation, it is found, by Saussure, that, according to a suitable scale, the influence of 7 degrees of Fahr. is nearly equal to a difference of one degree of saturability. Hence north and east winds, though colder than south and west, promote evaporation much more, the air they convey being farther from saturation.

III. The influences of wind are proportioned to its saturability, and velocity. Air, moving at the rate of forty feet per second, triples the quantity of evaporation that happens in calm air. Hence the warmer the air, the quicker its motion, the greater its saturability, and the longer its duration, the more it promotes evaporation.

IV. A card loses, when electrified, two grains and a quarter in an hour, while another, unelectrified, loses only one grain and a half. Light contributes to evaporation by disengaging air from water. (1) In London, whose mean annual temperature is about 50 degrees, the annual evaporation from one square foot is equal to rather more than 83lbs. avoirdupoise=15.76 inches in depth, which is nearly the mean quantity of rain that falls in that metropolis in the driest years. (2) Evaporation is nearly the same in winter as in summer. (3) Rain does not prevent evaporation. (4) The cold produced is proportioned to the quantity of evaporation.

Vapour may subsist in highly rarefied air; for Bouguer saw clouds so far above Chimboraco, as to be at least 4.3 miles above the level of the sea, where the barometer would at a temperature of 32 deg. stand at 12.7 inches. Water which boils at

212 deg. when the barometer stands at 30 inches, will, as the pressure diminishes, boil at a much lower heat, according to the following table.

HEAT OF BOILING WATER.			
Bar.	Heat.	Bar.	Heat.
30	212°	21	195·36°
29	210·28	20	193·36
28	208·52	19	191·06
27	206·73	18	188·46
26	204·91	17	185·56
25	203·06	16	184·36
24	201·18	15	180·86
23	199·77	14	176·70
22	197·53		

Hence distillation is easier on mountains than plains; yet within certain limits, for at heights that surpass 8 or 10 thousand feet, fuel is consumed very slowly.

Air saturated with moisture at high heats, is much more expanded than dry air of the same temperature; moist air, such as that of the West Indies, is much more suffocating than dry air of the same temperature.

The difference between the temperature of mountains and of plains, is not so great in winter as in summer; in winter the temperature at great heights is often warmer than on plains; consequently, thermometers placed at different heights will give different results. About eleven o'clock in the forenoon, in winter, the temperature, on the summits of high mountains, is exactly the same as that of plains; a circumstance that never occurs in summer..... Thaws generally begin above, and are gradually propagated downwards. The North Pacific Ocean, above lat. 40°, is much colder than the North Atlantic betwixt the same parallels. The interior parts of Siberia, east of longitude 100°, are much colder than parts equally distant from that meridian on the western side. The coast and interior of the western regions of America, are much colder above lat. 40°, than the corresponding tracts of the

European continent. Barometers, in the northern parts of Europe at least, generally stand higher in the months of December, January, and February. Both the highest and lowest states of the barometer occur in the winter months. The smallest variations occur within the tropics, but gradually increase as we recede from them.

The vapours emitted in different latitudes, and at different seasons of the year, contain different portions of electric matter, bearing a proportion to the temperatures of these latitudes.

Those emitted from the sea, between the tropics and warmer tracts, emit less of the electric fluid, than those from land; in colder regions the reverse of this takes place. Vapours that originate from mountains contain least, and those from plains most, of the electric fluid. *Dew* is nothing more than condensed vapours, elevated during the day from the soil over which the air depositing it is incumbent; hence its noxious qualities, when elevated from stagnating marshes, and the various impregnations it has been found to contain. The *haze* of the year 1783, was owing to the immense quantity of inflammable air, extricated from the bowels of the earth, during the earthquakes of Calabria (which happened during the months of February and March that year) strongly electrified, and impregnated with sulphureous, bituminous, earthy, and metallic particles. The quantity was such as to diffuse itself, after a few months, over most parts of Europe. While these heterogeneous particles were held in solution, the transparency of the atmosphere was not altered; but it was otherwise when they began to precipitate.

Prognostics.—(1) When the barometer falls, and the hygrometer rises, rain is announced. (2) When the barometer rises, and the hygrometer falls, fair weather may be expected: if both instruments fall, windy weather will probably follow,

especially if the barometer fall much below its mean height. (3) In the morning the hygrometer is generally higher than at noon; but if it stand lower at noon, in a greater proportion than the difference of of temperature demands, it prognosticates fair weather; on the contrary, if at noon it be higher than it stood in the morning, rain may be expected.

To foresee the rise or fall of the barometer in the day-time.—Observe it at seven in the morning, and again at nine, and at ten. If it remain steady, or if it fall during that interval of time, it will probably sink

lower. But if it rises, the chances of a greater rise or of a greater fall are equal.

Again, observe the barometer at one in the afternoon, and at three: if it remain unmoved, it is probable that it will rise; but if it has fallen, the chances of a further rise or fall are equal.

The hygrometer should be kept loose under a glass jar, to prevent it from being soiled by flies or dust; but the observations should be made in the open air, and in the shade, at a distance from houses or reflected heat. It requires but about two minutes to arrive at its proper height.

POETRY....ORIGINAL.

For the Literary Magazine.

ELEGY.

OH, fiend disguis'd in Honour's garb
divine!
Who impious durst her sacred vestments
wear,

Receive exulting, at thy bloody shrine,
The noblest victim ever offer'd there!

So dear was Honour to his manly
heart,
That he, devoted, follow'd e'en her
shade;

He knew thee false, and hollow as
thou art,

Yet, fatal error! he thy call obey'd.

His country pleads.. My patriot son,
O hear!

My hope, my darling, for my sake re-
frain!

Each pulse of life proclaims his coun-
try dear;

But oh! for once his country pleads in
vain!

His wife, his children, must he from
them part?

Give to each cherish'd form such heart-
felt pain?

The husband, father, melted at his
heart,

It bled, it paus'd....alas! it paus'd in
vain.

Press'd to the field, yet gen'rous to
excess,

He vow'd no blood on his pure hands
should glow:

The fatal green his pensive footsteps
press,

He falls, he bleeds, and life's last tor-
rents flow.

Yet, yet he lives! to seal his peace
with Heaven,

To bless his Saviour with his fleeting
breath;

Like Him, to own his murderer was
forgiven,

With dying lips, e'en eloquent in death.

Now clos'd those lips, which with
resistless sway,

Could thrill each breast, each stormy
passion bind;

Clos'd are those eyes, where dawn'd
the heart's soft ray,

Where flash'd th' effulgence of th' un-
equall'd mind.

A victim to Ambition's lawless rage,
Bath'd with his country's tears our hero
fell;

Pride of our hearts, and glory of the
age,
Thou soul of honour! Hamilton, fare-
well!

No time thy memory ever will erase,
But distant ages shall revere thy fame;
And while their heroes shall thy ac-
tions trace,
Repeat with wonder thy adored name!
N. N.

Where Cupids peeping oft are seen,
The pearly palisades between;
It will not quit a place so blest,
To dwell in my distracted breast.
Ah! if thy bosom Pity warms,
Take me, Myrtilla, to thy arms;
Then my lost soul you will restore,
Which ne'er shall play the truant more;
For love shall weave a flow'ry rether,
And bind our happy souls together.
New York, 1804.

For the Literary Magazine.

VERSES, TRANSLATED FROM THE
FRENCH.

MY soul, my soul! ye powers of love!
I've lost my soul! In yonder grove,
Myrtilla's bower, the nymph I found
Asleep upon the flowery ground.
One cheek a violet sod conceal'd,
T'other its rosy light reveal'd;
But this so bright, that you would swear
The blush of both was center'd there.
Her sylphs, forgetful of their keeping,
Among the honey-bells were sleeping,
While a young humming-bird inclin'd
The ripest rose of all to find,
Poiz'd o'er her lips his dazzling wing,
As tho' he'd found the pride of spring.
Stop! honey thief, 'tis I must taste,
I breathless cried. My soul in haste
Flew quivering to my glowing lip,
From her's the nectar'd dew to sip.
Lips of delight! oh sweets divine!
What banquet then could match with
mine!

One, one kiss more, and then forbear,
Rash plunderer! fly the waking fair.
Then, wild Desire, I snapt your chain,
And hurried through the grove again;
I flew, but ah! what grief to find
I left my darling soul behind!
When from her lips I mine withdrew,
In her sweet mouth away it flew.
Perhaps, poor soul! unus'd to stray,
'Twixt our two mouths it lost its way,
And now bewitch'd with its retreat,
It revels in ambrosial sweet,
Forgetful of its native breast,
Now lost to joy, and robb'd of rest,
With tears and plaintive cries, in vain
I call the wanderer back again.
Ah, no! regardless of my prayer,
It still remains and riots there;
From that sweet place it will not move,
Those lips, the coral gates of love,

SELECTED.

THE EXILE FROM FRANCE.

Why mourn ye, why strew ye these
flow'rets around,
To yon new sodded grave as you
slowly advance?
In yon new sodded grave (ever dear be
the ground)
Lies the stranger we love—the poor
exile from France.

And is the poor exile at rest from his
woe,
No longer the sport of misfortune and
chance?
Mourn on, village mourners, my tears
too shall flow
For the stranger we lov'd—the poor
exile from France.

Oh! kind was his nature, though bitter
his fate,
And gay was his converse, though
broken his heart:
No comfort, no hope his heart could
elate,
Though comfort and hope he to all
could impart.

Ever joyless himself, in the joys of the
plain
Still foremost was he, mirth and plea-
sure to raise;
And sad was his soul, yet how blithe
was his strain
When he sung the glad song of more
fortunate days!

One pleasure he knew, in his straw
cover'd shed,
For the snow-beaten beggar his fag-
gots to trim;

One tear of delight he could drop on the
bread
Which he shar'd with the poor who
were poorer than him.

And when round his death-bed pro-
fusely we cast

Every gift, every solace our hamlet
could bring,

He blest us with sighs, which we
thought were his last,

But he still had a prayer for his
country and king.

Poor exile, adieu! undisturb'd be thy
sleep!

From the feast, from the wake, from
the village-green dance,
How oft shall we wander, by moon-light,
to weep

O'er the stranger we lov'd—the poor
exile from France.

To the church-going bride shall thy
mem'ry impart

One pang as her eyes on thy cold re-
lics glance;

One rose from thy garland, one tear
from thy heart,

Shall drop on the grave of the exile
from France.

SELECTIONS.

ANECDOTES OF EDWARD DRINKER.

EDWARD DRINKER was born
in a cottage, on the spot where the
city of Philadelphia now stands,
which was inhabited, at the time of
his birth, by Indians, and a few
Swedes, and Hollanders.

He often talked of picking black-
berries, and catching wild rabbits,
where this populous city is now
seated. He remembered the arri-
val of William Penn, and used to
point out the spot where the cabin
stood in which that adventurer and
his friends were accommodated on
their arrival.

He saw the same spot of earth, in
the course of his own life, covered
with woods and bushes, the recep-
tacles of wild beasts and birds of
prey, afterwards become the seat of
a great and flourishing city, not only
the first in wealth and arts in Ame-
rica, but equalled but by few in Eu-
rope.

He saw splendid churches rise
upon morasses, where he used to
hear nothing but the croaking of
frogs; great wharves and ware-
houses, where he had often seen
savages draw their fish from the

river; he saw that river afterwards
receiving ships and merchandize
from every part of the globe, which,
in his youth, had nothing bigger than
an Indian canoe.

He had been the subject of many
crowned heads; but when he heard
of the oppressive and unconstitu-
tional acts passed in Britain, he
bought them all, and gave them to
his grandsons to make kites of; and
embracing the liberty and indepen-
dence of his country, after seeing
the beginning and end of the British
empire in Pennsylvania, and after
triumphing in the establishment of
freedom, he died in November,
1782, one hundred and five years
old.

DISASTROUS TALE OF LADY GRANGE.

*From Buchanan's Account of St.
Kilda.*

THIS island will continue to be
famous, from its being the place of
imprisonment of the hon. lady
Grange, who was, by private in-
trigue, carried out of her own

house, and violently put on board a vessel at Leith, unknown to any of her friends, and left her great personal estate in the possession of that very man who entered into this horrid conspiracy against her; he sent her to this wild isle, where she was barbarously used, and at last finished her miserable life among these ignorant people, who could not speak her language.

A poor old woman told me, that when she served her there, her whole time was devoted to weeping, and wrapping up letters round pieces of cork, bound up with yarn, and throwing them into the sea, to try if any favourable wave would waft them to some christian, to inform some humane person where she resided, in expectation of carrying tidings to her friends at Edinburgh.

This affair happened about the year 1733, owing to some private misunderstanding between her ladyship and lord Grange, whom she unfortunately married. But the real cause continues a secret, since her ladyship never returned.

This shocking affair would never have been heard of from that quarter, where secrecy is reduced into a solid system of dangerous intrigue against residing, but unconnected strangers, had not her ladyship prevailed on the minister's wife to go with a letter concealed under her clothes all the way to Glenelg, beyond all the isles, and deliver the letter into the post-office, where it found its way to her friends. They immediately applied to parliament, to make enquiry into this barbarous conspiracy; and though a vessel was fitted out from Leith immediately, yet it was supposed a courier was dispatched over land by her enemies, who had arrived at St. Kilda some time before the vessel. When the latter arrived, to their sad disappointment, they found the lady in her grave. Whether she died by the visitation of God or the wickedness of man, will for ever remain a secret; as their whole ad-

dress could not prevail on the minister and his wife, though brought to Edinburgh, to declare how it happened, as both were afraid of offending the great men of that country, among whom they were forced to reside.

Some people imagined, that she knew something of the rebellion that broke out in 1745, at that time, and meant to have divulged the secret, which is not very probable.

For the Literary Magazine.

INSTANCES OF HORNED MEN
AND WOMEN.

Continued from page 409.

MRS. ALLEN, a middle aged woman, resident in Leicestershire, had an incysted tumor upon her head, immediately under the scalp, very moveable, and evidently containing a fluid. It gave no pain unless pressed upon, and grew to the size of a small hen's egg. A few years ago it burst, and discharged a fluid; this diminished in quantity, and in a short time a horny excrescence, similar to those before-mentioned, grew out from the orifice, which has continued to increase in size; and in the month of November 1790, the time I saw it, was about five inches long, and a little more than an inch in circumference at its base. It was a good deal contorted, and the surface very irregular, having a laminated appearance. It moved readily with the scalp, and seemed to give no pain upon motion; but, when much handled, the surrounding skin became inflamed. This woman came to London, and exhibited herself as a show for money; and it is highly probable, that so rare an occurrence would have sufficiently excited the public attention to have made it answer her expectations in point of emolument, had not the circumstance been made known to her neighbours in the

country, who were much dissatisfied with the measure, and by their importunity obliged her husband to take her into the country.

In the *Ephemerides Academiæ Naturæ Curiosorum* there are two cases of horns growing from the human body. One of these instances was a German woman, who had several swellings, or ganglions, upon different parts of her head, from one of which a horn grew. The other was a nobleman, who had a small tumor, about the size of a nut, growing upon the parts covering the two last or lowermost vertebræ of the back. It continued for ten years, without undergoing any apparent change; but afterwards enlarged in size, and a horny excrescence grew out from it.

In the History of the Royal Society of Medicine, there is an account of a woman, ninety-seven years old, who had several tumors on her head, which had been fourteen years in growing to the state they were in at that time: she had also a horn which had originated from a similar tumor. The horn was very moveable, being attached to the scalp, without any adhesion to the skull. It was sawn off, but grew again, and although the operation was repeated several times, the horn always returned.

Bartholine, in his *Epistles*, takes notice of a woman who had a tumor under the scalp, covering the temporal muscle. This gradually enlarged, and a horn grew from it, which had become twelve inches long in the year 1646, the time he saw it. He gives us a representation of it, which bears a very accurate resemblance to that which I have mentioned to have seen in November 1790. No tumor or swelling is expressed in the figure; but the horn is coming directly out from the surface of the skin.

In the Natural History of Cheshire, a woman is mentioned to have lived in the year 1668, who had a tumor or wen upon her head for thirty-two years, which afterwards

enlarged, and two horns grew out of it; she was then seventy-two years old.

There is a horny excrescence in the British Museum, which is eleven inches long, and two inches and a half in circumference at the base, or thickest part. The following account of this horn I have been favoured with by Dr. Gray, taken from the records of the Museum. A woman, named French, who lived near Tenterden, had a tumor or wen upon her head, which increased to the size of a walnut; and in the 48th year of her age this horn began to grow, and in four years arrived at its present size.

There are many similar histories of these horny excrescences in the authors I have quoted, and in several others; but those mentioned above are the most accurate and particular with respect to their growth, and in all of them we find the origin was from a tumor, as in the two cases I have related; and although the nature of the tumor is not particularly mentioned, there can be no doubt of its being of the incysted kind, since in its progress it exactly resembled them, remaining stationary for a long time, and then coming forwards to the skin; and the horn being much smaller than the tumor, previously to the formation of the horn, is a proof that the tumor must have burst, and discharged its contents.

From the foregoing account it must appear evident, that these horny excrescences are not to be ranked among the appearances called *lusus naturæ*: nor are they altogether the product of disease, although undoubtedly the consequence of a local disease having previously existed; they are, more properly speaking, the result of certain operations in the part for its own restoration; but the actions of the animal economy being unable to bring them back to their original state, this species of excrescence is formed as a substitute for the natural cuticular covering.

DESCRIPTION OF THE RIVER AND
FALLS OF NIAGARA, AND THE
COUNTRY BORDERING UPON
THE NAVIGABLE PART OF THE
RIVER BELOW THE FALLS.

From Weld's Travels.

AT the distance of eighteen miles from the town of Niagara or Newark, are those remarkable falls in Niagara river, which may justly be ranked amongst the greatest natural curiosities in the known world. The road leading from Lake Ontario to Lake Erie runs within a few hundred yards of them. This road, which is within the British dominions, is carried along the top of the lofty steep banks of the river; for a considerable way it runs close to their very edge, and in passing along it the eye of the traveller is entertained with a variety of the most grand and beautiful prospects. The river, instead of growing narrow as you proceed upwards, widens considerably: at the end of nine or ten miles it expands to the breadth of a mile, and here it assumes much the appearance of a lake; it is enclosed, seemingly, on all sides, by high hills, and the current, owing to the great depth of water, is so gentle as to be scarcely perceptible from the top of the banks. It continues thus broad for a mile or two, when on a sudden the waters are contracted between the high hills on each side. From hence up to the falls the current is exceedingly irregular and rapid. At the upper end of this broad part of the river, and nearly at the foot of the banks, is situated a small village, that has been called Queenstown, but which, in the adjacent country, is best known by the name of "The Landing." The lake merchant vessels can proceed up to this village with perfect safety, and they commonly do so, to deposit in the stores there such goods as are intended to be sent higher up the country, and to receive in return the furs, &c. that have been collected at the various posts on lakes Huron and Erie, and

sent thither to be conveyed down to Kingston, across Lake Ontario. The portage from this place to the nearest navigable part of Niagara river, above the falls, is nine miles in length.

About half way up the banks, at the distance of a few hundred yards from Queenstown, there is a very extensive range of wooden barracks, which, when viewed a little way off, appears to great advantage; these barracks are now quite unoccupied, and it is not probable that they will ever be used until the climate improves; the first troops that were lodged in them, sickened in a very few days after their arrival; many of the men died, and had not those that remained alive been removed, pursuant to the advice of the physicians, to other quarters, the whole regiment might possibly have perished.

From the town of Niagara to Queenstown, the country in the neighbourhood of the river is very level; but here it puts on a different aspect; a confused range of hills, covered with oaks of an immense size, suddenly rises up before you, and the road that winds up the side of them is so steep and rugged, that it is absolutely necessary for the traveller to leave his carriage, if he should be in one, and proceed to the top on foot. Beyond these hills you again come to an unbroken level country: but the soil here differs materially from that on the opposite side: it consists of a rich dark earth intermixed with clay, and abounding with stones; whereas, on the side next Lake Ontario, the soil is of a yellowish cast, in some places inclining to gravel, and in others to sand.

From the brow of one of the hills in this ridge, which overhangs the little village of Queenstown, the eye of the traveller is gratified with one of the finest prospects that can be imagined in nature: you stand amidst a clump of large oaks, a little to the left of the road, and looking downwards perceive, through the branches of the trees with which the hill

is clothed from the summit to the base, the tops of the houses of Queenstown, and in front of the village, the ships moored in the river; the ships are at least two hundred feet below you, and their masts appear like slender reeds peeping up amidst the thick foliage of the trees. Carrying your eye forward, you may trace the river in all its windings, and finally see it disembogue into Lake Ontario, between the town and the fort: the lake itself terminates your view in this direction, except merely at one part of the horizon, where you just get a glimpse of the blue hills of Toronto. The shore of the river, on the right hand, remains in its natural state, covered with one continued forest; but on the opposite side the country is interspersed with cultivated fields, and neat farm houses, down to the water's edge. The country beyond the hills is much less cleared than that which lies towards the town of Niagara, on the navigable part of the river.

From the sudden change of the face of the country in the neighbourhood of Queenstown, and the equally sudden change in the river with respect to its breadth, depth, and current, conjectures have been formed that the great falls of the river must originally have been situated at the spot where the waters are so abruptly contracted between the hills; and indeed it is highly probable that this was the case, for it is a fact well ascertained, that the falls have receded very considerably since they were first visited by Europeans, and that they are still receding every year; but of this I shall have occasion to speak more particularly presently.

It was at an early hour of the day that we left the town of Niagara or Newark, accompanied by the attorney-general and an officer of the British engineers, in order to visit these stupendous falls. Every step that we advanced toward them, our expectations rose to a higher pitch; our eyes were continually on the look out for the column of white

mist which hovers over them; and a hundred times I believe, did we stop our carriage in hopes of hearing their thundering sound: neither however, was the mist to be seen, nor the sound to be heard, when we came to the foot of the hills; nor, after having crossed over them, were our eyes or ears more gratified. This occasioned no inconsiderable disappointment, and we could not but express our doubts to each other, that the wondrous accounts we had so frequently heard of the falls were without foundation, and calculated merely to impose on the minds of credulous people that inhabited a distant part of the world. These doubts were nearly confirmed, when we found that, after having approached within half a mile of the place, the mist was but just discernible, and that the sound even then was not to be heard; yet it is nevertheless strictly true, that the tremendous noise of the falls may be distinctly heard, at times, at the distance of forty miles; and the cloud formed from the spray may be even seen still farther off*; but it is only when the air is very clear,

* We ourselves, some time afterwards, beheld the cloud with the naked eye, at no less a distance than fifty-four miles, when sailing on Lake Erie, on board one of the king's ships. The day on which we saw it was uncommonly clear and calm, and we were seated on the poop of the vessel, admiring the bold scenery of the southern shore of the lake, when the commander, who had been aloft to make some observations, came to us, and pointing to a small white cloud in the horizon, told us, that that was the cloud overhanging Niagara. At first it appeared to us that this must have been a mere conjecture, but on minute observation it was evident that the commander's information was just. All the other light clouds in a few minutes flitted away to another part of the horizon, whereas this one remained steadily fixed in the same spot; and on looking at it through a glass, it was plain to see that the shape of the cloud varied every instant, owing to the continued rising of the mist from the cataract beneath.

and there is a fine blue sky, which however are very common occurrences in this country, that the cloud can be seen at such a great distance. The hearing of the sound of the falls afar off also depends upon the state of the atmosphere; it is observed, that the sound can be heard at the greatest distance, just before a heavy fall of rain, and when the wind is in a favourable point to convey the sound toward the listener: the day on which we first approached the falls was thick and cloudy.

On that part of the road leading to Lake Erie, which draws nearest to the falls, there is a small village, consisting of about half a dozen straggling houses: here we alighted, and having disposed of our horses, and made a slight repast, in order to prepare us for the fatigue we had to go through, we crossed over some fields towards a deep hollow place surrounded with large trees, from the bottom of which issued thick volumes of whitish mist that had much the appearance of smoke rising from large heaps of burning weeds. Having come to the edge of this hollow place, we descended a steep bank of about fifty yards, and then walking for some distance over a wet marshy piece of ground, covered with thick bushes, at last came to the Table Rock, so called from the remarkable flatness of its surface, and its bearing some similitude to a table. This rock is situated a little to the front of the great fall, above the top of which it is elevated above forty feet. The view from it is truly sublime; but before I attempt to give any idea of the nature of this view, it will be necessary to take a more general survey of the river and falls.

Niagara river issues from the eastern extremity of Lake Erie, and after a course of thirty-six miles discharges itself into Lake Ontario, as has already been mentioned. For the first few miles from Lake Erie, the breadth of the river is about three hundred yards, and it is deep enough for vessels drawing nine or

ten feet water; but the current is so extremely rapid and irregular, and the channel so intricate, on account of the numberless large rocks in different places, that no other vessels than bateaux ever attempt to pass along it. As you proceed downward the river widens, no rocks are to be seen either along the shores or in the channel, and the waters glide smoothly along, though the current continues very strong. The river runs thus evenly, and is navigable with safety for bateaux as far as Fort Chippeway, which is about three miles above the falls; but here the bed of it again becomes rocky, and the waters are violently agitated by passing down successive rapids, so much so indeed, that were a boat by any chance to be carried but a little way beyond Chippeway, where people usually stop, nothing could save it from being dashed to pieces long before it came to the falls. With such astonishing impetuosity do the waves break on the rocks in these rapids, that the mere sight of them from the top of the banks is sufficient to make you shudder. I must in this place, however, observe, that it is only on each side of the river that the waters are so much troubled; in the middle of it, though the current is also there uncommonly swift, yet the breakers are not so dangerous but boats may pass down, if dexterously managed, to an island which divides the river at the very falls. To go down to this island it is necessary to set off at some distance above Chippeway, where the current is even, and to keep exactly in the middle of the river the whole way thither; if the boats were suffered to get out of their course ever so little, either to the right or left, it would be impossible to stem the current, and bring them again into it; they would be irresistibly carried towards the falls, and destruction must inevitably follow. In returning from the island, there is still more difficulty and danger than in going to it. Notwithstanding these circumstances, numbers of persons have the fool-hardi-

ness to proceed to this island, merely for the sake of beholding the falls from the opposite side of it, or for the sake of having in their power to say that they had been upon it.

The river forces its way amidst the rocks with redoubled impetuosity, as it approaches towards the falls; at last, coming to the brink of the tremendous precipice, it tumbles headlong to the bottom, without meeting with any interruption from rocks in its descent. Just at the precipice the river takes a considerable bend to the right, and the line of the falls, instead of extending from bank to bank in the shortest direction, runs obliquely across. The width of the falls is considerably greater than the width of the river, admeasured some way below the precipice. The river does not rush down the precipice in one unbroken sheet, but is divided by islands into three distinct collateral falls. The most stupendous of these is that on the north-western or British side of the river, commonly called the Great, or Horse-shoe Fall, from its bearing some resemblance to the shape of a horse-shoe. The height of this is only one hundred and forty-two feet, whereas the others are each one hundred and sixty feet high; but to its inferior height it is indebted principally for its grandeur; the precipice, and of course the bed of the river above it, being so much lower at the one side than at the other, by far the greater part of the water of the river finds its way to the low side, and rushes down with greater velocity at that side than it does at the other, as the rapids above the precipice are strongest there. It is from the centre of the Horse-shoe Fall that arises that prodigious cloud of mist which may be seen so far off. The extent of the Horse-shoe Fall can only be ascertained by the eye; the general opinion of those who have most frequently viewed it is, that it is not less than six hundred yards in circumference. The island which separates it from the next fall is supposed to be about three hundred and fifty yards wide;

the second fall is about five yards wide; the next island about thirty yards; and the third, commonly called the Fort Schloper Fall, from being situated towards the side of the river on which that fort stands, is judged to admeasure at least as much as the large island. The whole extent of the precipice, therefore, including the islands, is, according to this computation, thirteen hundred and thirty-five yards. This is certainly not an exaggerated statement. Some have supposed, that the line of the falls altogether exceeds an English mile.

The quantity of water carried down the falls is prodigious. It will be found to amount to 670,255 tons per minute, though calculated simply from the following data, which ought to be correct, as coming from an experienced commander of one of the king's ships on Lake Erie, well acquainted in every respect with that body of water, viz. that where Lake Erie, towards its eastern extremity, is two miles and a half wide, the water is six feet deep, and the current runs at the rate of two knots in an hour; but Niagara river, between this part of Lake Erie and the falls, receives the waters of several large creeks, the quantity carried down the falls must therefore be greater than the foregoing computation makes it to be; if we say that six hundred and seventy-two thousand tons of water are precipitated down the falls every minute, the quantity will not probably be much over-rated.

To return now to the Table Rock, situated on the British side of the river, and on the verge of the Horse-shoe Fall. Here the spectator has an unobstructed view of the tremendous rapids above the falls, and of the circumjacent shores, covered with thick woods; of the Horse-shoe Fall, some yards below him; of the Fort Schloper Fall, at a distance to the left; and of the frightful gulf beneath, into which, if he has but courage to approach to the exposed edge of the rock, he may look down perpendicularly. The astonishment

excited in the mind of the spectator by the vastness of the different objects which he contemplates from hence is great indeed, and few persons, on coming here for the first time, can for some minutes collect themselves sufficiently to be able to form any tolerable conception of the stupendous scene before them. It is impossible for the eye to embrace the whole of it at once; it must gradually make itself acquainted, in the first place, with the component parts of the scene, each one of which is in itself an object of wonder; and such a length of time does this operation require, that many of those who have had an opportunity of contemplating the scene at their leisure, for years together, have thought that every time they have beheld it, each part has appeared more wonderful and more sublime, and that it has only been at the time of their last visit that they have been able to discover all the grandeur of the cataract.

Having spent a considerable time on the Table Rock, we returned to the fields the same way by which we had descended, pursuant to the direction of the officer of engineers accompanying us, who was intimately acquainted with every part of the cataract, and of the adjoining ground, and was, perhaps, the best guide that could be procured in the whole country. It would be possible to pursue your way along the edge of the cliff, from the Table Rock, a considerable way downwards; but the bushes are so exceedingly thick, and the ground so rugged, that the task would be arduous in the extreme.

The next spot from which we surveyed the falls was from the part of the cliff nearly opposite to that end of the Fort Schloper fall, which lies next to the island. You stand here on the edge of the cliff, behind some bushes, the tops of which have been cut down in order to open the view. From hence you have a better prospect of the whole cataract, and are enabled to form a more correct idea of the position of the precipice,

than from any one other place. The prospect from hence is more beautiful, but I think less grand than from any other spot. The officer who so politely directed our movements on this occasion was so struck with the view from this spot, that he once had a wooden house constructed, and drawn down here by oxen, in which he lived until he had finished several different drawings of the cataract: one of these we were gratified with the sight of, which exhibited a view of the cataract in the depth of winter, when in a most curious and wonderful state. The ice at this season of the year accumulates at the bottom of the cataract in immense mounds, and huge isicles, like the pillars of a massy building, hang pendent in many places from the top of the precipice reaching nearly to the bottom.

Having left this place, we returned once more through the woods bordering upon the precipice to the open fields, and then directed our course by a circuitous path, about one mile in length, to a part of the cliff where it is possible to descend to the bottom of the cataract. The river, for many miles below the precipice, is bounded on each side by steep, and in most parts perpendicular, cliffs, formed of earth and rocks, and it is impossible to descend to the bottom of them, except at two places, where large masses of earth and rocks have crumbled down, and ladders have been placed from one break to another, for the accommodation of passengers. The first of these places which you come to in walking along the river, from the Horse-shoe Fall downwards, is called the "Indian Ladder," the ladders having been constructed there by the Indians. These ladders, as they are called, of which there are several, one below the other, consist simply of long pine trees, with notches cut in their sides for the passenger to rest his feet on. The trees, even when first placed there, would vibrate as you stepped upon them, owing to their being so long and slender; age has rendered

them still less firm, and they now certainly cannot be deemed safe, though many persons are still in the habit of descending by their means. We did not attempt to get to the bottom of the cliff by this route, but proceeded to the other place, which is lower down the river, called Mrs. Simcoe's Ladder, the ladders having been originally placed there for the accommodation of the lady of the late governor. This route is much more frequented than the other; the ladders, properly so called, are strong, and firmly placed, and none of them, owing to the frequent breaks in the cliff, are required to be of such a great length but that even a lady might pass up or down them without fear of danger. To descend over the rugged rocks, however, the whole way down to the bottom of the cliff, is certainly no trifling undertaking, and few ladies, I believe, could be found of sufficient strength of body to encounter the fatigue of such an expedition.

On arriving at the bottom of the cliff, you find yourself in the midst of huge piles of mishapen rocks, with great masses of earth and rocks projecting from the side of the cliff, and overgrown with pines and cedars hanging over your head, apparently ready to crumble down and crush you to atoms. Many of the large trees grow with their heads downwards, being suspended by their roots, which had taken such a firm hold in the ground at the top of the cliff, that when part of it gave way, the trees did not fall altogether.... The river before you here is somewhat more than a quarter of a mile wide; and on the opposite side of it, a little to the right, the Fort Schloper Fall is seen to great advantage; what you see of the Horse-shoe Fall also appears in a very favourable point of view; the projecting cliff conceals nearly one half of it. The Fort Schloper Fall is skirted at bottom by milk-white foam, which ascends in thick volumes from the rocks; but is not seen to rise above the fall like a cloud of smoke, as is the case at the Horse-shoe Fall; ne-

vertheless the spray is so considerable, that it descends on the opposite side of the river, at the foot of Simcoe's Ladder, like rain.

Having reached the margin of the river, we proceeded towards the Great Fall, along the strand, which for a considerable part of the way thither consists of horizontal beds of limestone rock, covered with gravel, except, indeed, where great piles of stones have fallen from the sides of the cliff. These horizontal beds of rock, in some places, extend very far into the river, forming points which break the force of the current, and occasion strong eddies along particular parts of the shore. Here great numbers of the bodies of fishes, squirrels, foxes, and various other animals, that, unable to stem the current of the river above the falls, have been carried down them, and consequently killed, are washed up. The shore is likewise found strewed with trees, and large pieces of timber, that have been swept away from the saw mills above the falls, and carried down the precipice. The timber is generally terribly shattered, and the carcasses of all the large animals, particularly of the large fishes, are found very much bruised. A dreadful stench arises from the quantity of putrid matter lying on the shore, and numberless birds of prey, attracted by it, are always seen hovering about the place.

Amongst the numerous stories current in the country, relating to this wonderful cataract, there is one that records the hapless fate of a poor Indian, which I select, as the truth of it is unquestionable. The unfortunate hero of this tale, intoxicated, it seems, with spirits, had laid himself down to sleep in the bottom of his canoe, which was fastened to the beach at the distance of some miles above the falls. His squaw sat on the shore to watch him. Whilst they were in this situation, a sailor from one of the ships of war on the neighbouring lakes happened to pass by; he was struck with the charms of the squaw, and instantly determined upon enjoying them. The faithful

creature, however, unwilling to gratify his desires, hastened to the canoe to arouse her husband; but before she could effect her purpose, the sailor cut the cord by which the canoe was fastened, and set it adrift. It quickly floated away with the stream from the fatal spot, and ere many minutes elapsed, was carried down into the midst of the rapids. Here it was distinctly seen by several persons that were standing on the adjacent shore, whose attention had been caught by the singularity of the appearance of a canoe in such a part of the river. The violent motion of the waves soon awoke the Indian; he started up, looked wildly around, and perceiving his danger, instantly seized his paddle, and made the most surprising exertions to save himself; but finding in a little time that all his efforts would be of no avail in stemming the impetuosity of the current, he with great composure put aside his paddle, wrapt himself up in his blanket, and again laid himself down in the bottom of the canoe. In a few seconds he was hurried down the precipice; but neither he nor his canoe were ever seen more. It is supposed that not more than one third of the different things that happen to be carried down the falls re-appear at bottom.

From the foot of Simcoe's Ladder you may walk along the strand for some distance without inconvenience; but as you approach the Horse-shoe Fall, the way becomes more and more rugged. In some places, where the cliff has crumbled down, huge mounds of earth, rocks, and trees, reaching to the water's edge, oppose your course; it seems impossible to pass them; and, indeed; without a guide, a stranger would never find his way to the opposite side; for to get there it is necessary to mount nearly to their top, and then to crawl on your hands and knees through long dark holes, where passages are left open between the torn up rocks and trees. After passing these mounds, you have to climb from rock to rock close under the cliff, for there is but little space

here between the cliff and the river, and these rocks are so slippery, owing to the continual moisture from the spray, which descends very heavily, that without the utmost precaution it is scarcely possible to escape a fall. At the distance of a quarter of a mile from the Great Fall we were as wet, owing to the spray, as if each of us had been thrown into the river.

There is nothing whatsoever to prevent you from passing to the very foot of the Great Fall; and you might even proceed behind the prodigious sheet of water that comes pouring down from the top of the precipice, for the water falls from the edge of a projecting rock; and, moreover, caverns of a very considerable size have been hollowed out of the rocks at the bottom of the precipice, owing to the violent ebullition of the water, which extend some way underneath the bed of the upper part of the river. I advanced within about six yards of the edge of the sheet of water, just far enough to peep into the caverns behind it; but here my breath was nearly taken away by the violent whirlwind that always rages at the bottom of the cataract, occasioned by the concussion of such a vast body of water against the rocks. I confess I had no inclination at the time to go farther; nor, indeed, any of us afterwards attempted to explore the dreary confines of these caverns, where death seemed to await him that should be daring enough to enter their threatening jaws. No words can convey an adequate idea of the awful grandeur of the scene at this place. Your senses are appalled by the sight of the immense body of water that comes pouring down so closely to you from the top of the stupendous precipice, and by the thundering sound of the billows dashing against the rocky sides of the caverns below; you tremble with reverential fear, when you consider that a blast of the whirlwind might sweep you from off the slippery rocks on which you stand, and precipitate you into the dreadful

gulf beneath, from whence all the power of man could not extricate you; you feel what an insignificant being you are in the creation, and your mind is forcibly impressed with an awful idea of the power of that mighty Being who commanded the waters to flow.

Since the Falls of Niagara were first discovered, they have receded very considerably, owing to the disrapture of the rocks which form the precipice. The rocks at bottom are first loosened by the constant action of the water upon them; they are afterwards carried away, and those at top being thus undermined, are soon broken by the weight of the water rushing over them: even within the memory of many of the present inhabitants of the country, the falls have receded several yards. The commodore of the king's vessels on Lake Erie, who had been employed on that lake for upwards of thirty years, informed me, that when he first came into the country, it was a common practice for young men to go to the island in the middle of the falls; that after dining there, they used frequently to dare each other to walk into the river towards certain large rocks in the midst of the rapids, not far from the edge of the falls; and sometimes to proceed through the water, even beyond these rocks. No such rocks are to be seen at present; and were a man to advance two yards into the river from the island, he would be inevitably swept away by the torrent. It has been conjectured, as I before mentioned, that the Falls of Niagara were originally situated at Queenstown; and indeed the more pains you take to examine the course of the river from the present falls downward, the more reason is there to imagine that such a conjecture is well founded. From the precipice nearly down to Queenstown, the bed of the river is strewed with large rocks, and the banks are broken and rugged; circumstances which plainly denote that some great disruption has taken place along this part of the river; and we need be at no

loss to account for it, as there are evident marks of the action of water upon the sides of the banks, and considerably above their present bases. Now the river has never been known to rise near these marks during the greatest floods; it is plain, therefore, that its bed must have been once much more elevated than it is at present. Below Queenstown, however, there are no traces on the banks to lead us to imagine that the level of the water was ever much higher there than it is now. The sudden increase of the depth of the river just below the hills at Queenstown, and its sudden expansion there at the same time, seem to indicate that the waters must for a great length of time have fallen from the top of the hills, and thus have formed that extensive deep basin below the village. In the river, a mile or two above Queenstown, there is a tremendous whirlpool, owing to a deep hole in the bed; this hole was probably also formed by the waters falling for a great length of time on the same spot, in consequence of the rocks which composed the then precipice having remained firmer than those at any other place did. Tradition tells us, that the Great Fall, instead of having been in the form of a horse-shoe, once projected in the middle. For a century past, however, it has remained nearly in the present form; and as the ebullition of the water at the bottom of the cataract is so much greater at the centre of this fall than in any other part, and as the water consequently acts with more force there in undermining the precipice than at any other part, it is not unlikely that it may remain nearly in the same form for ages to come.

At the bottom of the Horse-shoe Fall is found a kind of white concrete substance, by the people of the country called spray. Some persons have supposed that it is formed from the earthy particles of the water, which descending, owing to their great specific gravity, quicker than the other particles, adhere to the rocks, and are there formed into a

mass. This concrete substance has precisely the appearance of petrified froth; and it is remarkable, that it is found adhering to those rocks against which the greatest quantities of the froth that floats upon the water, is washed by the eddies.

We did not think of ascending the cliff till the evening was far advanced, and had it been possible to have found our way up in the dark, I verily believe we should have remained at the bottom of it until midnight. Just as we left the foot of the Great Fall the sun broke through the clouds, and one of the most beautiful and perfect rainbows that ever I beheld was exhibited in the spray that arose from the fall. It is only at evening and morning that the rainbow is seen in perfection; for the banks of the river, and the steep precipice, shade the sun from the spray at the bottom of the fall in the middle of the day.

At a great distance from the foot of the ladder we halted, and one of the party was dispatched to fetch a bottle of brandy and a pair of goblets, which had been deposited under some stones on the margin of the river, in our way to the Great Fall, whither it would have been highly inconvenient to have carried them. Wet from head to foot, and greatly fatigued, there certainly was not one amongst us that appeared, at the moment, desirous of getting the brandy, in order to pour out a libation to the tutelary deities of the cataract; nor indeed was there much reason to apprehend that our piety would have shone forth more conspicuously afterwards; however it was not put to the test; for the messenger returned in a few minutes with the woeful intelligence that the brandy and goblets had been stolen. We were at no great loss in guessing who the thieves were. Perched on the rocks, at a little distance from us, sat a pair of the river nymphs, not "nymphs with sedged crowns and ever harmless looks;" not "temperate nymphs," but a pair of squat sturdy old wenches, that with close bonnets, and tucked up petticoats,

had crawled down the cliff, and were busied with long rods in angling for fish. Their noisy clack plainly indicated that they had been well pleased with the brandy, and that we ought not to entertain any hopes of recovering the spoil; we even slaked our thirst, therefore, with a draught from the wholesome flood, and having done so, boldly pushed forward, and before it was quite dark regained the habitations from whence we had started.

On returning we found a well-spread table laid out for us in the porch of the house, and having gratified the keen appetite which the fatigue we had encountered had excited, our friendly guides, having previously given us instructions for examining the falls more particularly, set off by moonlight for Niagara, and we repaired to Fort Chippeway, three miles above the falls, which place we made our headquarters while we remained in the neighbourhood, because there was a tolerable tavern, and no house in the village near the falls where sickness was not prevalent.

The Falls of Niagara are much less difficult of access now, than they were some years ago. Charlevoix, who visited them in the year 1720, tells us, that they were only to be viewed from one spot, and that from thence the spectator had only a side prospect of them. Had he been able to have descended to the bottom, he would have had ocular demonstration of the existence of caverns underneath the precipice, which he supposed to be the case from the hollow sound of the falling of the waters, from the number of carcases washed up there on different parts of the strand, and would also have been convinced of the truth of a circumstance which he totally disbelieved, namely, that fish were oftentimes unable to stem the rapid current above the falls, and were consequently carried down the precipice.

The most favourable season for visiting the falls is about the middle of September, the time when we saw them; for then the woods are seen

in all their glory, beautifully variegated with the rich tints of autumn; and the spectator is not then annoyed with vermin. In the summer season you meet with rattle-snakes at every step, and mosquitoes swarm so thickly in the air, that to use a common phrase of the country, "you might cut them with a knife." The cold nights in the beginning of September effectually banish these noxious animals.

NATURAL BRIDGE;

In a letter from a gentleman now travelling for the purpose of viewing the natural curiosities in the western parts of Virginia.

I ACCOMPLISHED, on Monday last, the most laborious job I ever undertook: this was the measuring the natural bridge in this county, "the most sublime of Nature's works." This bridge is 134 feet higher than the natural bridge in Rockbridge county, being 339 feet in perpendicular height; its summit projects 87 feet over its base, it fronts to the south-west, and is arched as regular as could be by the hand of art. The arch in front is about 200 feet high, and slopes off to sixty feet at the distance of 106 feet from the entrance; from its mouth in a straight direction measures 406 feet; thence at right angles 300 feet; from the wall to the other end 340 feet; the roof is regularly arched, and gradually descends to eighteen feet, which is the lowest part at the intersection of the second angle; it then rises to twenty, thirty, forty, and seventy-five feet, which is the height of the north-east entrance. The stream of water which runs under the bridge is from thirty-five, forty, and fifty-five feet wide at its common height. The head of this stream (Stock creek) is from three to four miles above the bridge, rising out of a knob or spur of Clinch mountain, and empties itself three miles below

into Clinch river: this creek is suddenly swelled by rains sometimes to ten and twelve feet perpendicular, but is soon run out. There is a waggon road over the bridge, which is only used in time of freshes, and that is the only part that can be crossed: on approaching it to the south-west front, it produces the most pleasing, awful sensations; the front is a solid rock of limestone, the surface very smooth and regular, formed in a semicircle, the rock of a bright yellow colour, which colour is heightened by the rays of the sun, the arch is partly obscured by a spur of the ridge which runs down to the edge of the creek in front of the arch. Across the creek stand several beautiful trees; the most elegant and luxuriant is a *cucumber tree* teeming with fruit, the leaves are from two to two and a half feet in length, and one foot in width; this, with two white cedars, and three white walnut trees, adds very much to the beauty of the scene; to describe it would be a vain attempt, and can only be done by the skilful limner.

If the scene below creates such pleasing sensations, what must that from above be! It fills the mind with horror. From the level of the summit of the ridge where the road passes to the verge of the fissure, the mountain descends about forty-five degrees of an angle, and is from forty-five to fifty feet perpendicular height; you involuntarily slide down feet foremost, holding to every twig you pass until you reach the verge, which is for six or eight feet less steep; the rock is covered with a thick stratum of earth, which gives growth to many large trees; from this landing-place to the verge is a descent of nine feet, so steep that it cannot be approached near enough to look over; to the west of the arch, about 400 yards, the ascent to the verge is much leveller, where you may look into the abyss below. My guide was an old hunter, who had for many years been accustomed to clambering over the steepest mountains. On approaching the

verge, the horror of the scene below intimidated him for a few moments, but he could presently walk along the verge with composure. This bridge may be passed by thousands without a knowledge of it, unless attracted by the roaring of the water below.

AMERICAN FISHERIES.

FROM Hudson, on the river of that name, we are informed, that a brig had taken, in March last, at Prince Edward Islands, 17,000 seal skins, and was in expectation of four times that number. A ship from the same port had arrived from the South Seas with oil. The Medical Repository, published at New York, which, to the most valuable communications on medical science, unites a review of the most interesting events in science and commerce, takes notice of this subject. It informs us, that the vessels usually visit Juan Fernandez and Massafuero. That being in less abundance in these islands, the vessels have visited the other islands of the same seas. That, in 1800 and 1801, as many as ten vessels were employed from New York, and the northern states. These voyages have been undertaken for several years past. Some of these vessels have carried to Canton from 60,000 to 100,000 seal skins. The voyage generally exceeds two years. Of the whale fishery, the same work gives the following account:

In 1799, twenty-six vessels were in the whale fishery, amounting to 5,055 tons; in 1800, seventeen vessels, amounting to 2,814 tons; in 1801, fifteen vessels, not above 2,349 tons; in 1802, twenty vessels, reckoned at 3,201 tons. Of the last twenty, one belonging to Sagg Harbour, one to Boston, six to New Bedford, and twelve to Nantucket. A list we have in our hands, received from a friend, stating the Nantucket and New Bedford whale

ships, gives forty ships with their names and tonnage, besides such as are building for the trade, and six brigs, thirteen schooners, and thirty-six sloops which may be employed in the fishery, giving above 12,000 tons, of which three-fourths belong to the ships of these ports. It is observed, that only two or three of the sloops are in the fishery, only two of the schooners, and three of the brigs. Of New Bedford, seventeen ships might be employed in the whale fishery, about 230 tons each. About half the oil is consumed in the country, and no head matter is exported. The work to which we referred, states, that in 1791 there were exported 134,595 gallons of spermaceti oil, and 447,323 gallons of right whale oil; 182,400 pounds of spermaceti candles, and 124,829 pounds of whalebone. In 1802, only 28,470 gallons of spermaceti, and 379,976 of right whale oil; 135,637 pounds of spermaceti candles, and 80,334 pounds of whalebone. The average quantity for twelve years is given at 106,493 gallons of spermaceti oil, 573,941 gallons of right whale oil, 197,967 pounds of spermaceti candles, and 191,234 pounds of whalebone. This account is followed with a statement of the cod fishery. The exports in 1791 were 383,237 quintals of dried fish, and 57,424 barrels of pickled fish. In 1802, were 440,954 quintals of dried, and 75,819 barrels, and 13,229 kegs of pickled fish. In 1802, were employed 1,140 vessels, having 39,399 tons, and 4,533 men, not reckoning boats under five tons, nor the men in them. The author is unable to say how much of the salt fish is supplied from the British northern colonies, but perhaps not so very considerable a part as he may imagine. This might be ascertained with respect to the whole quantity. We can judge only from our own market. We wish a statement was made by a person well informed in the fisheries, and in regard to every port.

Salem Register.

PICTURES IN WALES.

A Welsh Village.

THE village of Llanberis is highly romantic: it is situated in a narrow grassy dell, surrounded by immense rocks, whose summits, cloud-capt, are but seldom visible from below. Except two tolerable houses in the vale, one belonging to the agent to the copper mine, and the other, which is beside the lake, belonging to the agent of the slate quarries, the whole village consists but of twenty miserable cottages. They are constructed of a shaly kind of stone, with which the country abounds, and with just so much lime as to keep out the keenest of the mountain blasts. The windows are all very small, and by far the greater part of them, having been formerly broken, are blocked up with boards, leaving only three or four panes of glass, and affording scarcely sufficient light within to render even "darkness visible." Here I might expect to find a race who, subject to all the inconveniences, without the benefits of civil society, were in a state little short of absolute misery. Men, it might be supposed, in this secluded place, with difficulty contriving to exist, would be cheerless as their own mountains, shrowded as they are in snow and clouds; but I did not find them so; they were happier in their moss-grown sheds, than millions in more exalted stations of life.

There are two houses in this village, at which the wearied traveller may find some poor refreshment. One of these belongs to John Close, a grey-headed old man, who, though born and brought up in the north of Yorkshire, having occasion to come into Wales when he was quite a youth, preferred this to his Yorkshire home, and has resided here ever since. The other house is kept by the *parish clerk*, who may be employed as a guide over any part of the adjacent country. I found him well acquainted with the mountains, and a much more intelli-

gent man than guides in general are. He does not speak English well, but his civility and attention amply atoned for that defect. Neither of these places *affords* a bed, nor any thing better than bread, butter, and *cheese*, and, perhaps, eggs and bacon.

A Welsh Inn.

As I was one day sitting to my rustic fare, in one of the public houses, I could not help remarking the oddness of the group, all at the same time, and in the same room, enjoying their different repasts. At one table was seated the family, consisting of the host, his wife, and their son and daughter, eating their bread and milk, the common food of the labouring people here; a large overgrown old sow making a noise, neither very low nor very musical, while devouring her dinner from a pail placed for her by the daughter, was in one corner, and I was eating my bread and butter, with an appetite steeled against niceties by the keenness of the mountain air, at a table covered with a dirty napkin, in the other. This scene, however, induced me ever afterwards, in my excursions to this place, to bring refreshments with me, and enjoy my dinner in quiet in the open air. But except in this instance, I did not find the house worse than I had any reason to expect in such a place as this. The accommodations in the clerk's house are poor, but the inhabitants seemed very clean and decent people.

A Welsh Church.

The church of Llanberis, which is dedicated to St. Peris, a cardinal, missioned from Rome as a legate to this island, who is said to have settled and died at this place, is, the most ill-looking place of worship I ever beheld. The first time I visited the village, I mistook it for an ancient cottage, for even the bell turret was so overgrown with ivy, as to bear as much the appearance of a weather-beaten chimney as any

thing else, and the long grass in the church-yard completely hid the few grave stones therein from the view. I thought it indeed a cottage larger than the rest, and it was some time before I could persuade myself it was a church. Here is yet to be seen the well of the saint, inclosed within a square wall, but I met with no sybil, as other travellers have done, who could divine my fortune by the appearance or non-appearance of a little fish which lurks in some of its holes.

-A Welsh Curate.

The curate resides in a mean-looking cottage not far distant, which seemed to consist of few other rooms than a kitchen and bed-room, the latter of which served also for his study. When I first saw him he was employed in reading in an old volume of sermons. His dress was somewhat singular; he had on a blue coat, which had long been worn threadbare, a pair of antique corderoy breeches, and a black waistcoat, and round his head he wore a blue handkerchief.

From the exterior of the cottage, it seemed the habitation of indigence, but the smiles of the good man were such as would render even poverty itself cheerful. His salary is about forty pounds, on which, with his little farm, he contrives to support himself, his wife, and a horse, and with this slender pittance he appeared perfectly contented and comfortable. His wife was not at home, but, from a wheel which I observed in the kitchen, I conjectured that her time was employed in spinning wool. The account I had from some of the parishioners of his character was, that he was a man respected and beloved by all, and that his chief attention was occupied in doing such good as his circumstances would afford to his fellow creatures.

A MUSICAL EAR EXPLAINED.

THE difference between a musical ear and one which is too imperfect to distinguish the different notes in music, appears to arise entirely from the greater or less nicety with which the muscle of the malleus renders the membrana tympani capable of being truly adjusted. If the tension be perfect, all the variations produced by the action of the radiated muscle will be equally correct, and the ear truly musical; but, if the first adjustment is imperfect, although the actions of the radiated muscle may still produce infinite variations, none of them will be correct: the effect, in this respect, will be similar to that produced by playing upon a musical instrument which is not in tune. The hearing of articulate sounds requires less nicety in the adjustment, than of inarticulate or musical ones: an ear may therefore be able to perceive the one, although it is not fitted to receive distinct perceptions from the other.

The nicety or correctness of a musical ear being the result of muscular action, renders it, in part, an *acquirement*; for, though the original formation of these muscles in some ears renders them more capable of arriving at this excellence, early cultivation is still necessary for that purpose; and it is found that an ear, which upon the first trials seemed unfit to receive accurate perceptions of sounds, shall, by early and constant application, be rendered tolerably correct, but never can attain excellence. There are organs of hearing in which the parts are so nicely adjusted to one another, as to render them capable of a degree of correctness in hearing sounds which appears preternatural.

Children who during their infancy are much in the society of musical performers, will be naturally induced to attend more to inarticulate sounds than articulate ones, and by these means acquire a correct ear, which, after listening

for two or three years to articulate sounds only, would have been attained with more difficulty.

This mode of adapting the ear to different sounds, appears to be one of the most beautiful applications of muscles in the body; the mechanism is so simple, and the variety of effects so great.

the atmosphere of each planet will be acted upon by a movement more rapid on the side which is next to the sun, than on that which is opposite. the planets must make revolutions in themselves, presenting successively the whole circumference of their orbs to the sun."

ROTATION OF THE SUN.

AN inhabitant of Pau, in the department of the lower Pyrenees, in France, has discovered a method by which the sun may be examined without injuring the sight. He has himself examined it, and, through the same medium, has shown it to others. It turns incessantly on its axis, and the parts of its surface are more brilliant, the more remote they are from its poles, so that its equator is the most splendid part. It revolves with a rapidity beyond calculation, but which is supposed to be about a hundred times in the minute.

Picot, the astronomer, who has made this discovery, is persuaded that this very rapid rotation of the sun furnishes a simple and more natural explanation of the movements of the planetary world. He proposes the following, as a theory for the consideration of abler men: "As the sun revolves with great velocity, it must give motion to a quantity of ether through a distance proportioned to its density, its magnitude, and above all to the rapidity of its motion; this distance must consequently extend far beyond the Georgium Sidus of Herschel.

"The circular movement which the ether must necessarily have, must communicate itself to the planets, the atmosphere of which it surrounds; and as the motion of the ether must be the more rapid, the nearer it is to the sun, it follows, First....That the planets will be driven round the sun with a velocity, which will be in the inverse ratio of their distance. Secondly....That as

ON EMBRACING A PARTY IN POLITICS.

IN a country where freedom of discussion on public topics is permitted, no man capable of raising his views beyond mere personal interest can pass through life without some time or other engaging in party. Englishmen and Americans have been supposed peculiarly addicted to the contests and disputes which proceed from this source; though I imagine this to be owing rather to the superior liberty they long enjoyed of following their inclinations in this respect, than to any peculiarity of temper. The objects which enter into party debates being those on which the dearest interests of mankind depend, no wonder men should differ about them, and urge their differences with great warmth and earnestness. Party zeal has therefore always been characteristic of free states; and though undoubtedly in some measure an evil, it is, like most evils, inseparable from the good whence it originates. Its influence on the happiness of individuals is also very great; whence there can need no apology for reasoning freely on this topic.

There are various lights in which the subject of party may be considered as relative to individuals; and one of the most obvious for admonition would be the *prudential*. But this lies in a very small compass; and were it my purpose to instruct you how you might manage the business of party so as to suffer the least and gain the most in your pecuniary concerns, I should think I had done enough by imprinting on your memory the sage aphorism,

"Either take no side at all, or take the strongest side."

But not to give you a lesson which I ought not to enforce by my own example, I shall proceed to consider party in that light in which a sense of the true dignity of character, and a regard to the public good, require that it should be considered. With respect to the latter, indeed, an obscure individual cannot flatter himself with the power of producing any important effects; but every man may indulge the ambition of acting an honourable, virtuous, and consistent part in life, as far as he is called upon to act at all.

I shall begin with reminding you of the difference between *taking a part*, and becoming a *party-man*.... The former denotes only such an occasional or subordinate interference in party affairs, as is consistent not only with due attention to one's private concerns, but with a preservation of the ordinary intercourse of society and civility between neighbours and fellow citizens, though of opposite opinions. The latter, on the contrary, signifies such an attachment to party as influences the whole character, and gives the tone and colour to a man's conduct through life. It is the ruling passion; and like all other passions scorns the controul of good sense and moderation. To point out to you a single person under the full dominion of it, would be sufficiently to warn you of its baneful efficacy in poisoning the comforts of life, and debasing the moral character.

Supposing you, therefore, to remain master of yourself, and only to give party its turn along with other social duties, let us inquire if there is any test by which you may always be directed to the right one.

It has long been a favourite maxim with many, that all parties are fundamentally alike, and that, however they may be discriminated by adverse denominations, their principles of action are essentially the same. This is a very convenient doctrine for those who are conscious that their own rule of conduct is one

and simple, namely, the pursuit of their interest. But though party-men may very much resemble each other, yet I am persuaded that there is in the causes themselves enough whereon to found an essential distinction; and notwithstanding this distinction may not coincide with any of those party differences which are denoted by names and badges, as whig and tory, green and orange, federalist and republican, and the like, yet I think it is in particular cases strongly enough marked to serve as a guide for the conduct of individuals.

I do not mean to assert that the characters of individuals always correspond with that of the parties under which they are arranged.... The side of opposition may be taken from motives as selfish as those of the defenders of usurped power.... from the mere design of occupying their places. Nor is it to be concealed, that a turbulent and discontented spirit, incapable of quiet submission to any authority whatever, a high degree of pride and self-conceit, or a disposition to wild and extravagant projects, occasionally render men the general opposers of all existing institutions. On the other hand, those who act with a corrupt party are sometimes not aware of the nature and extent of its profligacy, but from thoughtlessness and a compliant disposition are led to join in measures contrary to the general tenor of their principles and conduct. But after these due exceptions and allowances are made, a philosopher will recur to the great and universal laws of cause and effect, and confide in their predominant operation, however varied or modified by circumstances. He will know, that according to the train of ideas which habitually pass through a man's mind, such will finally be the prevailing hue and tincture of that mind;....that arguments founded on fraud, sophistry, disingenuousness, or an arrogant contempt of the rights of mankind, will infallibly contaminate the medium through which they pass; while the habit of

fair and free discussion, and constant appeals to the noblest principles of human action, cannot but tend to clear and expand the mental vision. As far as my experience reaches, I can confirm to you these deductions of reason; and I do not hesitate to assure you, that I never knew a man seriously engaged in the support of a narrow and unjust cause, whose mind was not proportionally warped and contracted, and made capable of mean and dishonourable conduct. On the contrary, the worthiest and most exalted characters I ever knew, have been those nurtured in the language and reasonings of a liberal cause.

Party has been said, by one who had much personal experience of it, to be "the madness of many for the gain of a few." However just this character may in most cases be, I cannot discern that the charge of irrationality necessarily applies to all who take a part in public contests. Men, indeed, who suffer themselves to be hurried away by their passions, or who, from ignorance of mankind, entertain expectations which can never be realised, and put implicit faith in the declarations of every pretended zealot for their own cause, will always be liable to run into violence and absurdity; but they who are capable of making a sober estimate of the value of the thing contended for, and of the motives and characters of the agents, need not forfeit either their temper or their good sense by even an active interference in party. Nor am I convinced, that because the leaders may be knaves, the followers must always be dupes and fools.... Suspected characters are often, on account of their abilities, suffered to take the lead in conducting an honest cause; and while they perform their parts with spirit and consistency, though it be but acting a part, they may deserve the public support and encouragement. Suppose them to be mercenaries, yet while they fight the battle well, they are fairly entitled to their hire. Nothing is more common, than that such characters

employ the prime of their exertions in the service of the party they have spontaneously joined, and reserve only the dregs of life and reputation for the work of prostitution. When Pulteney sunk from the hope and darling of the nation, to the despised and insignificant earl of Bath, whom did he dupe?....himself and his purchasers.

But I feel myself deviating into a dissertation on parties, when it was my purpose only to give a direction to your sentiments and conduct with respect to them. Confining myself, therefore, to this object, I shall make the supposition, that, unbiassed as you are by interest, you will not find it difficult to discover which is the preferable side, in most of those cases where you may be called upon to take a part. Certain systems of power are fundamentally bad. They manifestly never had the public good for their object. They are mere compacts of fraud and violence, by which the rights of the many are sacrificed to the emolument of the few. They abhor all discussion, and rely for their continuance solely on the fears or prejudices of mankind. Concerning them, therefore, your judgment is not very likely to be misled. But, as I have already observed, to judge truly and candidly concerning the individuals who support such systems is not so easy a task. So great is the force of early associations on men's minds, and so complicated are all questions of fact and expedience in human affairs, that persons of the purest intentions may be led to act in a manner totally different from that which you would conclude to be the result of fair and impartial examination.

When, however, you find a man, not deficient in knowledge and enquiry, who, by studied sophistry, endeavours to perplex where he must despair of convincing....misleads from the true point of a question, and strives to wrap it in mysterious obscurity....who throws out malignant insinuations against the views and principles of his opponents, and is

ever ready to supply the deficiency of argument by appeals to authoritywho, moreover, has a manifest interest in the side he has taken, and in all probability would not have concerned himself at all with the controversy, had it not been for such a motive;....when a man of this character falls in your way (and I fear you cannot walk far through life without such an occurrence) hesitate not to determine, "Hic niger est"....he is bad at heart....a noxious animal, to be shunned or crushed as circumstances may dictate.... The most candid man I ever knew, whose character as well as name we both should be proud to inherit, could never speak without a marked indignation of those who attempted to stifle truths of which they were themselves persuaded, and to force down falsehoods which they knew to be such. There have been, and doubtless are, many Roman catholics, who have received their absurd and tyrannous system of faith with such a perfect conviction of its truth and importance, that they are prepared, with the best intentions, to use unwarrantable means for its support and propagation; but Leo the Tenth, who, amidst buffoons and panders, could say, "What a fine thing this fable of Christ has been to us!" and then employ all the resources of imposture and persecution to maintain the papal power, was an unequivocal knave.

I do not mean, however, to encourage you to make use of hard words in controversy, nor, except in very clear cases, to give way to harsh opinions. And this leads me to warn you against that spirit of credulity, with respect to persons and things, which is so distinguished a feature of party. This it is which has filled our histories with so many scandals and absurdities, and which makes even the current topics of the day little more than a tissue of falsehoods and misrepresentations.... I know party-men, of unblemished character for veracity in other points, after whom I should be loth to repeat even a probable story....

While some are ensnared by mere credulity, others are still further misled by a spirit of exaggeration, which is not quite so innocent as the former, since it cannot be entirely acquitted of consciousness and design. Both, however, proceed from the same rash and sanguine cast of temper, and a preponderancy of the imagination over the judgment. I think it is the Spectator that gives an account of a person who used to make considerable gains by throwing himself in the way of these hasty people, in their paroxysms of party zeal, and offering them bets on the subject of their bold assertions. The loss of money, however, is the least evil such a disposition is liable to occasion. The loss of credit, even among those of the same party, and a plentiful stock of false and distorted ideas durably impressed on the mind, are more serious mischiefs. It is, indeed, this propensity to weak belief that has thrown the chief ridicule upon party politicians, and rendered them such favourable subjects for satirical representation. One of the best correctives of this tendency is a strong conviction that men are always men, liable to all the variety of motive suited to their nature.... that complete folly and knavery are almost as rare as their opposites.... and that wonders of all kinds are great improbabilities.

I shall close my admonitions by a caution against the littleness of a party spirit. As the essence of all party is division, its natural effect is to narrow our ideas, and fix our attention on parts rather than on wholes. A title, a badge, a dress, and various other little things, are apt to swell into importance, in our imaginations, and to occupy the place of higher and nobler objects. Some party differences are in their own nature so insignificant that every thing belonging to them must necessarily be petty and trivial. But even in those grand contests which turn upon points materially connected with the happiness of mankind, vulgar minds are usually more engaged by the names of the leaders,

and the banners under which they march, than by the cause. I think, however, that the stronger sense of the present age has in a considerable degree corrected this error, and that the folly and favouritism of party have much abated. It may, in consequence, have become more stern and intractable; but if we are to contend at all, let it be about principles rather than persons, and with the spirit of men, rather than of children. It is true philosophy alone which can elevate the mind above all that is low and debasing; and opposite as the characters of philosophy and party have usually appeared, I despair not of their union in one breast.

ON TELESCOPES.

THE best telescopes, such as Herschell's, enable the eye to see near forty times farther than the naked eye can do, but optic glasses are of two kinds; one brings the object apparently nearer by magnifying it; another penetrates further than the naked eye without magnifying; these are what are called night glasses, and penetrate six or seven times further than the natural eye; and the great advantages of Herschell's telescopes arise from their combining the penetrating and magnifying power. In some circumstances these powers interfere with each other; and even the magnifying power has its limits, since, by extending it too far, obscurity ensues from magnifying the medium. In some nights, when the air is full of vapour, but not in the vesicular state, there are scarcely any limits to the magnifying power. The penetrating power may also be greatly extended. A forty-foot reflector advances to 191.69, but it is possible to extend this power so far as 500. Even with this reflector, allowing a star of the seventh magnitude to be visible to the unassisted eye, this telescope will show stars of the 1342d magni-

tude; but, when assisted by the united lustre of sidereal systems, it will penetrate $11\frac{1}{2}$ millions of millions of miles, exceeding 300,000 times the distance of the nearest fixed star! The range of such a telescope must be of course extensive beyond imagination, and to examine these immense distances there are few favourable hours.

DEATH.

HOW very little is to be decided respecting the characters of men from the last moments of their lives! Many pious and good persons have left the world in agonies and terrors, whilst many vicious and dissolute men have died with great calmness. Pericles, of all men perhaps the least superstitious, and who, during a long and active life, had ever appeared to be master of himself, on his death-bed showed a friend a charm that had been put upon his breast. "See," said he, "to what I am come; the women have made me do this." Patru was desired by the great Bousset, on his death-bed, to undeceive the world respecting some free opinions he was supposed to have entertained. "Ah, mon seigneur," replied he, "dans les derniers moments, on parle le plus souvent par foiblesse ou par vanité."

RABIES FELINA.

AMONG the Garrows, a Hindoo tribe of savages, a madness exists, which they call transtormation into a tiger, from the person, who is afflicted with this malady, walking about like that animal, shunning all society. It is said, that on their being first seized with this complaint, they tear their hair, and the rings from their ears, with such force as to break the lobe. It is supposed to be occasioned by a medicine applied to the forehead; but I endeavoured, says a learned traveller, to procure

some of the medicine thus used without effect ; I imagine it rather to be created by frequent intoxications, as the malady goes off in the course of a week or a fortnight ; during the time the person is in this state, it is with the utmost difficulty he is made to eat and drink. I questioned a man who had thus been afflicted, as to the manner of his being seized, and he told me he only felt a giddiness, without any pain, and that afterwards he did not know what happened to him.

WELSH FAIRIES DESCRIBED.

THE Roman cavern, in Llany-mynech hill, called Ogo, has been long noted as the residence of a clan of the fairy tribe, of whom the villagers relate many surprising and mischievous tricks. They have listened at the mouth of the cave, and have sometimes even heard them in conversation, but always in such low whispers that their words have never been distinguishable. The stream that runs across it is celebrated as being the place in which they have been heard to wash their clothes, and do several other kinds of work.

These busy little folk seem to be somewhat allied to what are called knockers, which by the Welsh are believed to be a species of aerial beings, that are heard under ground in or near mines, who by their noises direct the miners where to find a rich vein. The following extraordinary account of them is by Mr. Lewis Morris, a very learned and sensible man, and a person whose judgment is esteemed of great weight, by every one who has been either acquainted with him or his writings.

People who know very little of art or science, or the powers of nature, (which in other words, are the powers of the Author of nature) will laugh at us Cardiganshire miners, who maintain the existence

of knockers in mines, a kind of good-natured inpalpable people, not to be seen, but heard, and who seem to us to work in the mines ; that is to say, they are types or forerunners of working in the mines, as dreams are of some accidents which happen to us. The barometer falls before rain or storms. If we did not know the construction of it, we should call it a kind of dream, that foretels rain ; but we know it is natural, and produced by natural means comprehended by us. Now how are we sure, or any body sure, but that our dreams are produced by the same natural means ? There is some faint resemblance of this in the sense of hearing ; the bird is killed before we hear the report of the gun. However this is, I must speak well of these knockers, for they have actually stood my very good friends, whether they are aerial beings, called spirits, or whether they are a people made of matter, not to be felt by our gross bodies, as air and fire, and the like.

Before the discovery of Esgair y Mwyn mine, these little people, as we call them here, worked hard there day and night : and there are abundance of honest sober people who have heard them, and some persons who have no notion of them, or of mines either ; but, after the discovery of the great ore, they were heard no more.

When I began to work at Llwyn Llwyd, they worked so fresh there for a considerable time, that they even frightened some young workmen out of the work. This was when we were driving levels, and before we had got any ore : but when we came to the ore, they then gave over, and I heard no more talk of them.

Our old miners are no more concerned at hearing them blasting, boring holes, landing deads, &c. than if they were some of their own people ; and a single miner will stay in the work, in the dead of the night, without any man near him, and never think of any fear or harm

they will do him ; for they have a notion, that the knockers are of their own tribe and profession, and are a harmless people who mean well. Three or four miners together, shall hear them sometimes, but if the miners stop to take notice of them, the knockers will also stop ; but let the miners go on at their own work, suppose it is boring, the knockers will go on as brisk as can be, in landing, blasting, or beating down the loose ; and they are always heard a little from them before they came to the ore.

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An intelligent friend of mine informs me that these noises of the knockers, as they are called, have very lately been heard in the parish of Llanvihangel Ysgeiviog, in Anglesea, where they continued at different intervals for some weeks. In accounting for these noises it has been observed, that they probably proceeded either from the echo of the miners at work, or from the dropping of water ; but these seem by no means sufficient, if Mr. Morris's assertion be true, that while the miners are going on with one kind of work they are going on with another, while, for instance, as he says, the miners are boring, they are blasting, the former certainly cannot be true, and the blasting entirely puts the latter conjecture out of the question, for the droppings of water could never produce any effect of that kind. As I am only acquainted with the subject from report, I am under the necessity of leaving the elucidation of these extraordinary facts to some who have better opportunities of inquiring into them.

SKETCH OF AN ITALIAN CITY.

MATERA in the kingdom of Naples, is said to contain 14,000 inhabitants, amongst whom are several very rich and considerable families. But although the town is the seat of a tribunal, and the residence of a numerous clergy, there reigns, especially among the latter, an astonishing degree of ignorance ; and as for the arts and sciences, no favourable mention can be made of them. The people of Matera principally subsist by agriculture, and the breeding of horses, mules, sheep, and hogs. Bread, water, and wine, the three great necessities of life, are in high perfection at this place ; and the two first are not inferior to any in the kingdom. The women, of the upper classes, are not without beauty ; but the common people are extremely ugly, ragged, and filthy, of a cruel and barbarous disposition, and so addicted to the most atrocious crimes, that the prisons continually swarm with malefactors, deserving death in its severest forms. This is principally to be ascribed to the clouds of ignorance and darkness in which the province of Basilicata is still enveloped, and to the little care which has hitherto been taken to enlighten its inhabitants ; nor will they emerge from their present state of barbarism until they have better roads, more humane barons, and more intelligent and upright governors. Much is here attributed to the misfortune of having had two successive presidents, whose character and conduct at length occasioned their recall : but I ascribe much more to the abominable filth so prevalent in this town, to the mode of living, and to the provisions ; which, with the above reasons, have rendered these people unworthy of the human form, and exposed them to disorders and accidents, with which more reasonable beings seldom are afflicted. Without speaking of the number of cretins (although without goitres), and of those who are deformed from their birth, it is sufficient to mention

some of the medicine thus used without effect ; I imagine it rather to be created by frequent intoxications, as the malady goes off in the course of a week or a fortnight ; during the time the person is in this state, it is with the utmost difficulty he is made to eat and drink. I questioned a man who had thus been afflicted, as to the manner of his being seized, and he told me he only felt a giddiness, without any pain, and that afterwards he did not know what happened to him.

WELSH FAIRIES DESCRIBED.

THE Roman cavern, in Llany-mynech hill, called Ogo, has been long noted as the residence of a clan of the fairy tribe, of whom the villagers relate many surprising and mischievous tricks. They have listened at the mouth of the cave, and have sometimes even heard them in conversation, but always in such low whispers that their words have never been distinguishable. The stream that runs across it is celebrated as being the place in which they have been heard to wash their clothes, and do several other kinds of work.

These busy little folk seem to be somewhat allied to what are called knockers, which by the Welsh are believed to be a species of aerial beings, that are heard under ground in or near mines, who by their noises direct the miners where to find a rich vein. The following extraordinary account of them is by Mr. Lewis Morris, a very learned and sensible man, and a person whose judgment is esteemed of great weight, by every one who has been either acquainted with him or his writings.

People who know very little of art or science, or the powers of nature, (which in other words, are the powers of the Author of nature) will laugh at us Cardiganshire miners, who maintain the existence

of knockers in mines, a kind of good-natured inpalpable people, not to be seen, but heard, and who seem to us to work in the mines ; that is to say, they are types or forerunners of working in the mines, as dreams are of some accidents which happen to us. The barometer falls before rain or storms. If we did not know the construction of it, we should call it a kind of dream, that foretels rain ; but we know it is natural, and produced by natural means comprehended by us. Now how are we sure, or any body sure, but that our dreams are produced by the same natural means ? There is some faint resemblance of this in the sense of hearing ; the bird is killed before we hear the report of the gun. However this is, I must speak well of these knockers, for they have actually stood my very good friends, whether they are aerial beings, called spirits, or whether they are a people made of matter, not to be felt by our gross bodies, as air and fire, and the like.

Before the discovery of Esgair y Mwyn mine, these little people, as we call them here, worked hard there day and night : and there are abundance of honest sober people who have heard them, and some persons who have no notion of them, or of mines either ; but, after the discovery of the great ore, they were heard no more.

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the Lupi Mannari, who, rushing out of their subterraneous holes during the night, send forth the most terrifying howls, wallow in the mud, and in the heaps of filth and ordure, and desperately attack such as chance to fall in their way.

In the summer are seen a number of men and women, called Tarantulati, who, decked out in vine-leaves and red ribbons, are suffered to dance unmolested about the streets.

Finally, a disease called the monacello, or l'incube, is here very common amongst men and women, who are delivered over to exorcism, and other impositions of the priests. All these maladies are usually preceded by a profound melancholy, and are caused not so much by the heat of the climate, as by the mode of life, and the nature of the diet prevalent in this part of the country. The excessive use of salt and rancid pork, the uncleanness in the houses, and in the dark and humid caverns, and the evaporations from the open privies, and hills of filth and ordure that are left in the streets, are the physical causes of these melancholy disorders, which generally terminate in the most dreadful manner. To fill up the measure of misfortune, there is no tolerable physician or surgeon throughout the country, and I advise no one to suffer a tooth to be drawn there, unless he chooses also to risk the fracture of his jaw.

OF THE EARTHQUAKES AND VOLCANOES OF THE UNITED STATES.

By Volney.

THOUGH North America has only been known about two centuries, this period, so brief in the annals of nature, has supplied us with numerous proofs, that earthquakes have been violent and frequent throughout this region, in former ages, and that they have occasioned

those subversions, of which the maritime country affords continual and striking indications. If we ascend merely to the year 1628, when the first English colonists arrived, and deduce events down to 1782, a course of 154 years, says Mr. Williams, we shall find mention made of forty-five earthquakes. His enquiries have established the following general facts:

“That these earthquakes are denoted by a noise, resembling that of a high wind, or that sound which is produced by a chimney on fire. That they throw down the chimney tops, and sometimes even houses themselves: that they have made doors and windows rattle, and leave wells, and even many rivers dry; that they make the waters turbid, and give them a fetid smell of liver of sulphur; that they throw up sand from rents in the earth, which has the same odour; that their tremors appear to flow from internal fire, which pushes the earth upwards, in a line generally running from north-west to south-east, in the course of the Merrimack river, extending southward to the Potowmack, and north to the St. Lawrence, particularly affecting the direction of Lake Ontario.”

Some particulars in this writer's details have a striking agreement with the appearances which I have already enlarged upon. The odour of liver of sulphur (or ammoniac sulphure) with which the water and sand are impregnated, exuding from the earth, in large crevices or rifts, is supplied by the strata of schistose perstratum, at Niagara, and which when exposed to the heat, exhale a strong sulphureous vapour.

This schistose stratum is found in the channel of the Hudson, and appears, in many places, in Pennsylvania and New York, among sandstone and granite. There is reason to believe that it prevails all round Ontario, and under Lake Erie, and consequently that it forms one of the great layers of the country, where earthquakes have their principal focus.

The line of this subterranean fire runs north-west and south-east, affecting strongly the direction of the sea and the Lake Ontario. This bias or tendency is the more remarkable, considering the singular structure of the lake. The other lakes, notwithstanding their great extent, have no great depth. Erie is never more than 100 or 120 feet deep. Lake Superior is easily fathomed, in several places. Ontario, on the contrary, is, in general, very deep, exceeding 250 feet, and, in many places, sounded ineffectually with a line of 500 feet. This vast depth is sometimes discovered near the shore. From these circumstances, the inference is clear, that the bed of the lake is the crater of an extinguished volcano. This conclusion is strengthened by the many volcanic substances found upon its shores, and of which skilful eyes would, no doubt, discover many other specimens; by the shape of the great ledge or cliff which forms an almost circular border to the lake, and which every where evinces, to reflecting observers, that the *flat* of Niagara once extended to the midst of this lake, and that it has been broken up and engulfed by the action of a volcano.

The existence of this furnace agrees with all the traces of earthquakes hitherto mentioned; and these two agents, which we here find united, prove at once the existence of subterranean fires, at a great but unknown depth beneath the surface, and explain that confusion in which the strata of the Atlantic or maritime region is at present found. It likewise explains why the calcareous, and even the granitic strata, have so great an inclination as between 45 and 80 degrees, their shattered masses being heaped together in the pits or chasms formed by great explosions. It is to this breach in the bed of isinglass that the little cataracts are owing; and this fact shows us, that this secret combustion extended, beyond the Potowmack, as far south as this bank itself.

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There is doubtless some communication between this bank of talc and that of the Antilles.

I have already observed, that no trace of earthquakes is to be found in the western country; that the Indian languages contain no word corresponding with this phenomenon: I may add, from the authority of Dr. Barton, that they no longer have in use a name equivalent to volcano, of which they can perceive no vestiges amidst the lake, but of which there are numerous remains on the Allegheny. I was informed at Detroit, that the northern Indians relate a story of a mountain, somewhere far inland, which sometimes throws out smoke; but the report wants a surer foundation.

We may reasonably hope, that, in process of time, learned associations may take place, in the United States, who may employ, in geological investigation, more steadfast and experienced means, and thus make greater discoveries, than it is possible for single travellers to accomplish.

Such investigations cannot fail to furnish new and valuable materials for the history of the globe, and will tend to confirm the conjecture of some naturalists, which I have likewise adopted, that North America has emerged from the sea, at a later period than South America, or the greater part of the eastern continent. These waters, whether fresh or saline, fluvial or marine, once covered the surface of this globe, to a greater height than that of the most elevated ridges, and for so long a time as to dissolve all these matters, which were chrystalised after their evaporation or subsiding.

ANECDOTES OF PUTNAM.

IN the year 1739, Putnam removed from Salem to Pomfret, an inland fertile town in Connecticut, forty miles east of Hartford. Having here purchased a considerable tract

of land, he applied himself successfully to agriculture.

The first years, on a new farm, are not, however, exempt from disasters and disappointments, which can only be remedied by stubborn and patient industry. Our farmer, sufficiently occupied in building a house and barn, felling woods, making fences, sowing grain, planting orchards, and taking care of his stock, had to encounter, in turn, the calamities occasioned by drought in summer, blast in harvest, loss of cattle in winter, and the desolation of his sheep-fold by wolves. In one night he had seventy fine sheep and goats killed, besides many lambs and kids wounded. This havock was committed by a she-wolf, which, with her annual whelps, had for several years infested the vicinity.... The young were commonly destroyed by the vigilance of the hunters, but the old one was too sagacious to come within reach of gun-shot: upon being closely pursued, she would generally fly to the western woods, and return the next winter with another litter of whelps.

This wolf, at length, became such an intolerable nuisance that Mr. Putnam entered into a combination with five of his neighbours to hunt alternately until they could destroy her. Two, by rotation, were to be constantly in pursuit. It was known, that, having lost the toes from one foot, by a steel-trap, she made one track shorter than the other. By this vestige the pursuers recognized, in a light snow, the route of this pernicious animal. Having followed her to Connecticut river, and found she had turned back in a direct course towards Pomfret, they immediately returned, and by ten o'clock the next morning the blood-hounds had driven her into a den, about three miles distant from the house of Mr. Putnam. The people soon collected with dogs, guns, straw, fire, and sulphur, to attack the common enemy. With this apparatus, several unsuccessful efforts were made to force her from the den. The hounds came back badly wounded, and re-

fused to return. The smoke of blazing straw had no effect; nor did the fumes of burnt brimstone, with which the cavern was filled, compel her to quit the retirement. Wearied with such fruitless attempts (which had brought the time to ten o'clock at night) Mr. Putnam tried once more to make his dog enter, but in vain. He proposed to his negro man to go down into the cavern and shoot the wolf: the negro declined the hazardous service. Then it was that the master, angry at the disappointment, and declaring that he was ashamed to have a coward in his family, resolved himself to destroy the ferocious beast, lest he should escape though some unknown fissure of the rock. His neighbours strongly remonstrated against the perilous enterprize; but he, knowing that wild animals were intimidated by fire, and having provided several strips of birch-bark, the only combustible material which he could obtain that would afford light in this deep and darksome cave, prepared for his descent. Having, accordingly, divested himself of his coat and waistcoat, and having a long rope fastened round his legs, by which he might be pulled back, at a concerted signal, he entered head foremost, with the blazing torch in his hand.

The aperture of the den, on the east side of a very high ledge of rocks, is about two feet square; from thence it descends obliquely fifteen feet, then running horizontally about ten more, it ascends gradually sixteen feet towards its termination. The sides of this subterraneous cavity are composed of smooth and solid rocks, which seem to have been divided from each other by some former earthquake. The top and bottom are also of stone, and the entrance, in winter, being covered with ice, is exceedingly slippery. It is in no place high enough for a man to raise himself upright, nor in any part more than three feet in width.

Having groped his passage to the horizontal part of the den, the most terrifying darkness appeared in front

of the dim circle of light afforded by his torch. It was silent as the house of death. None but monsters of the desert had ever before explored this solitary mansion of horror. He, cautiously proceeding onward, came to the ascent, which he slowly mounted on his hands and knees, until he discovered the glaring eye-balls of the wolf, who was sitting at the extremity of the cavern. Startled at the sight of fire, she gnashed her teeth, and gave a sullen growl. As soon as he had made the necessary discovery, he kicked the rope as a signal for pulling him out. The people at the mouth of the den, who had listened with painful anxiety, hearing the growling of the wolf, and supposing their friend to be in the most imminent danger, drew him forth with such celerity that his shirt was stripped over his head, and his skin severely lacerated. After he had adjusted his clothes, and loaded his gun with nine buck-shot, holding a torch in one hand, and the musket in the other, he descended the second time. When he drew nearer than before, the wolf, assuming a still more fierce and terrible appearance, howling, rolling her eyes, snapping her teeth, and dropping her head between her legs, was evidently in the attitude, and on the point of springing at him. At the critical instant he levelled and fired at her head. Stunned with the shock, and suffocated with the smoke, he immediately found himself drawn out of the cave. But having refreshed himself, and permitted the smoke to dissipate, he went down the third time. Once more he came within sight of the wolf, who appearing very passive, he applied the torch to her nose; and perceiving her dead, he took hold of her ears, and then kicking the rope (still tied round his legs) the people above, with no small exultation, dragged them both out together.

Few are so ignorant of war, as not to know, that military adventures in the night are always extremely liable to accidents. Captain Putnam

having been commanded to reconnoitre the enemy's camp at the Ovens, near Ticonderoga, took the brave lieutenant Robert Durkee, as his companion. In attempting to execute these orders, he narrowly missed being taken himself in the first instance, and killing his friend in the second. It was customary for the British and provincial troops to place their fires round their camp, which frequently exposed them to the enemy's scouts and patrols. A contrary practice, then unknown in the English army, prevailed among the French and Indians. The plan was much more rational; they kept their fires in the centre, lodged their men circularly at a distance, and posted their centinels in the surrounding darkness. Our partizans approached the camp, and supposing the centries were within the circle of fires, crept upon their hands and knees with the greatest possible caution, until, to their utter astonishment, they found themselves in the thickest of the enemy. The centinels, discovering them, fired, and slightly wounded Durkee in the thigh. He and Putnam had no alternative. They fled. The latter being foremost, and scarcely able to see his hand before him, soon plunged into a clay-pit. Durkee, almost at the identical moment, came tumbling after. Putnam, by no means pleased at finding a companion, and believing him to be one of the enemy, lifted his tomahawk to give the deadly blow, when Durkee, who had followed so closely as to know him, enquired whether he had escaped unhurt. Captain Putnam, instantly recognizing the voice, dropped his weapon; and both, springing from the pit, made good their retreat to the neighbouring ledges, amidst a shower of random shot. There they betook themselves to a large log, by the side of which they lodged the remainder of the night. Before they lay down, captain Putnam said he had a little rum in his canteen, which could never be more acceptable or necessary; but, on examining the canteen, which hung under his arm, he found the

enemy had pierced it with their balls, and that there was not a drop of liquor left. The next day he found fourteen bullet holes in his blanket.

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In the month of August five hundred men were employed, under the orders of majors Rogers and Putnam, to watch the motions of the enemy near Ticonderoga. At South Bay they separated the party into two equal divisions, and Rogers took a position on Wood-Creek, twelve miles distant from Putnam.

Upon being, some time afterwards, discovered, they formed a reunion, and concerted measures for returning to Fort Edward. Their march through the woods was *in three divisions by FILES*: the right commanded by Rogers, the left by Putnam, and the centre by captain D'Ell. The first night they encamped on the banks of Clear River, about a mile from old Fort Ann, which had been formerly built by general Nicholson. Next morning major Rogers, and a British officer, named Irwin, incautiously suffered themselves, from a spirit of false emulation, to be engaged in firing at a mark. Nothing could have been more repugnant to the military principles of Putnam than such conduct, or reprobated by him in more pointed terms. As soon as the heavy dew which had fallen the preceding night would permit, the detachment moved in one body, Putnam being in front, D'Ell in centre, and Rogers in the rear. The impervious growth of shrubs and under-brush that had sprung up, where the land had been partially cleared some years before, occasioned this change in the order of march. At the moment of moving, the famous French partizan Molang, who had been sent with five hundred men to intercept our party, was not more than one mile and a half distant from them. Having heard the firing, he hastened to lay an ambuscade precisely in that part of the wood most favourable to his project. Major Putnam was just emerging from the thicket, into the common forest, when the enemy rose, and

with discordant yells and whoops, commenced an attack upon the right of his division. Surprised, but undismayed, Putnam halted, returned the fire, and passed the word for the other divisions to advance for his support. D'Ell came. The action, though widely scattered, and principally fought between man and man, soon grew general and intensely warm. It would be as difficult as useless to describe this irregular and ferocious mode of fighting. Rogers came not up; but, as he declared afterwards, formed a circular file between our party and Wood creek, to prevent their being taken in rear or enfiladed. Successful as he commonly was, his conduct did not always pass without unfavourable imputation. Notwithstanding, it was a current saying in the camp, "that Rogers always *sent*, but Putnam *led* his men to action," yet, in justice, it ought to be remarked here, that the latter has never been known, in relating the story of this day's disaster, to affix any stigma upon the conduct of the former.

Major Putnam perceiving it would be impracticable to cross the creek, determined to maintain his ground. Inspired by his example, the officers and men behaved with great bravery; sometimes they fought aggregately in open view, and sometimes individually under cover; taking aim from behind the bodies of trees, and acting in a manner independent of each other. For himself, having discharged his fuzee several times, at length it missed fire, while the muzzle was pressed against the breast of a large and well-proportioned savage. This *warrior*, availing himself of the indefensible attitude of his adversary, with a tremendous war-whoop, sprang forward, with his lifted hatchet, and compelled him to surrender; and having disarmed and bound him fast to a tree, returned to the battle.

The intrepid captains D'Ell and Harman, who now commanded, were forced to give ground for a little distance; the savages, conceiving this to be the certain harbinger

of victory, rushed impetuously on, with dreadful and redoubled cries. But our two partizans, collecting a handful of brave men, gave the pursuers so warm a reception as to oblige them, in turn, to retreat a little beyond the spot at which the action had commenced. Here they made a stand. This change of ground occasioned the tree to which Putnam was tied to be directly between the fire of the two parties. Human imagination can hardly figure to itself a more deplorable situation. The balls flew incessantly from either side, many struck the tree, while some passed through the sleeves and skirts of his coat. In this state of jeopardy, unable to move his body, to stir his limbs, or even to incline his head, he remained more than an hour. So equally balanced, and so obstinate was the fight! At one moment, while the battle swerved in favour of the enemy, a young savage chose an odd way of discovering his humour. He found Putnam bound. He might have dispatched him at a blow; but he loved better to excite the terrors of the prisoner, by hurling a tomahawk at his head, or rather it should seem his object was to see how near he could throw it without touching him; the weapon struck in the tree a number of times at a hair's breadth distance from the mark. When the Indian had finished his amusement, a French bas-officer, a much more inveterate savage by nature, though descended from so humane and polished a nation, perceiving Putnam, came up to him, and, levelling a fuzee within a foot of his breast, attempted to discharge it...it missed fire. Ineffectually did the intended victim solicit the treatment due to his situation, by repeating that he was a prisoner of war. The degenerate Frenchman did not understand the language of honour or of nature: deaf to their voice, and dead to sensibility, he violently and repeatedly pushed the muzzle of his gun against Putnam's ribs, and finally gave him a cruel blow on the jaw with the butt of his piece. After this dastardly deed he left him.

At length the active intrepidity of D'Elli and Harman*, seconded by the persevering valour of their followers, prevailed. They drove from the field the enemy, who left about ninety dead behind them. As they were retiring, Putnam was untied by the Indian who had made him prisoner, and whom he afterwards called master. Having been conducted for some distance from the place of action, he was stripped of his coat, vest, stockings, and shoes; loaded with as many of the packs of the wounded as could be piled upon him; strongly pinioned, and his wrists tied as closely together as they could be pulled with a cord. After he had marched, through no pleasant paths, in this painful manner, for many a tedious mile, the party (who were excessively fatigued) halted to breathe. His hands were now immoderately swelled from the tightness of the ligature; and the pain had become intolerable. His feet were so much scratched that the blood dropped fast from them. Exhausted with bearing a burden above his strength, and frantic with torments exquisite beyond endurance, he entreated the Irish interpreter to implore, as the last and only grace he desired of the savages, that they would knock him on the head and take his scalp at once, or loose his hands. A French officer instantly interposing, ordered his hands to be unbound, and some of the packs to be taken off. By this time the Indian who captured him, and had been absent with the wounded, coming up, gave him a pair of moccasins, and expressed great indignation at the unworthy treatment his prisoner had suffered.

That savage chief again returned to the care of the wounded, and the Indians, about two hundred in number, went before the rest of the party to the place where the whole were that night to encamp. They took with them major Putnam, on whom, besides innumerable other

* This worthy officer is still living at Marlborough, in the state of Massachusetts.

outrages, they had the barbarity to inflict a deep wound with a tomahawk in the left cheek. His sufferings were in this place to be consummated. A scene of horror, infinitely greater than had ever met his eyes before was now preparing. It was determined to roast him alive. For this purpose they led him into a dark forest, stripped him naked, bound him to a tree, and piled dry brush, with other fuel, at a small distance, in a circle, round him. They accompanied their labours, as if for his funeral dirge, with screams and sounds inimitable but by savage voices. Then they set the piles on fire. A sudden shower damped the rising flame. Still they strove to kindle it, until, at last, the blaze ran fiercely round the circle. Major Putnam soon began to feel the scorching heat. His hands were so tied that he could move his body. He often shifted sides as the fire approached. This sight, at the very idea of which all but savages must shudder, afforded the highest diversion to his inhuman tormentors, who demonstrated the delirium of their joy by correspondent yells, dances, and gesticulations. He saw clearly that his final hour was inevitably come. He summoned all his resolution, and composed his mind, as far as the circumstances could admit, to bid an eternal farewell to all he held most dear. To quit the world would scarcely have cost one single pang, but for the idea of home, but for the remembrance of domestic endearments, of the affectionate partner of his soul, and of their beloved offspring. His thought was ultimately fixed on a happier state of existence, beyond the tortures he was beginning to endure. The bitterness of death, even of that death which is accompanied with the keenest agonies, was in a manner past....nature, with a feeble struggle, was quitting its last hold on sublunary things, when a French officer rushed through the crowd, opened a way by scattering the burning brands, and unbound the victim. It was Molang himself,

to whom a savage, unwilling to see another human sacrifice immolated, had run and communicated the tidings. That commandant spurned and severely reprimanded the barbarians, whose nocturnal powwas and hellish orgies he suddenly ended. Putnam did not want for feeling or gratitude. The French commander, fearing to trust him alone with them, remained until he could deliver him in safety into the hands of his master.

The savage approached his prisoner kindly, and seemed to treat him with particular affection. He offered him some hard biscuit; but finding that he could not chew them, on account of the blow he had received from the Frenchman, this more humane savage soaked some of the biscuit in water, and made him suck the pulp-like part. Determined, however, not to lose his captive, (the refreshment being finished) he took the mocasons from his feet, and tied them to one of his wrists; then directing him to lie down on his back, upon the bare ground, he stretched one arm to its full length, and bound it fast to a young tree, the other arm was extended and bound in the same manner, his legs were stretched apart and fastened to two saplings. Then a number of tall, but slender poles were cut down, which, with some long bushes, were laid across his body from head to foot; on each side lay as many Indians as could conveniently find lodging, in order to prevent the possibility of his escape. In this disagreeable and painful posture he remained until morning. During this night, the longest and most dreary conceivable, our hero used to relate that he felt a ray of cheerfulness come casually across his mind, and could not even refrain from smiling when he reflected on this ludicrous groupe for a painter, of which he himself was the principle figure.

The next day he was allowed his blanket and mocasons, and permitted to march without carrying any pack, or receiving any insult. To

allay his extreme hunger, a little bear's meat was given, which he sucked through his teeth. At night the party arrived at Ticonderoga, and the prisoner was placed under the care of a French guard. The savages, who had been prevented from glutting their diabolical thirst for blood, took other opportunity of manifesting their malevolence for the disappointment, by horrid grimaces and angry gestures; but they were suffered no more to offer violence or personal indignity to him.

After having been examined by the marquis de Montcalm, major Putnam was conducted to Montreal, by a French officer, who treated him with the greatest indulgence and humanity.

STORY OF MRS. HOWE.

AT the house of colonel Schuyler, major Putnam became acquainted with Mrs. Howe, a fair captive, whose history would not be read without emotion, if it could be written in the same affecting manner in which I have often heard it told.... She was still young and handsome herself, though she had two daughters of marriageable age. Distress, which had taken somewhat from the original redundancy of her bloom, and added a softening paleness to her cheeks, rendered her appearance the more engaging. Her face, that seemed to have been formed for the assemblage of dimples and smiles, was clouded with care. The natural sweetness was not, however, soured by despondency and petulance, but chastened by humility and resignation. This mild daughter of sorrow looked as if she had known the day of prosperity, when serenity and gladness of soul were the inmates of her bosom. That day was past, and the once lively features now assumed a tender melancholy, which witnessed her irreparable loss. She needed not the customary weeds of mourning, or the fallacious pageantry of woe, to prove her widowed

state. She was in that stage of affliction when the excess is so far abated as to permit the subject to be drawn into conversation, without opening the wound afresh. It is then rather a source of pleasure than pain to dwell upon the circumstances in narration. Every thing conspired to make her story interesting. Her first husband had been killed and scalped by the Indians some years before. By an unexpected assault, in 1756, upon Fort Dummer, where she then happened to be present with Mr. Howe, her second husband, the savages carried the fort, murdered the greater part of the garrison, mangled in death her husband, and led her away with seven children into captivity. She was for some months kept with them; and during their rambles she was frequently on the point of perishing with hunger, and as often subjected to hardships seemingly intolerable to one of so delicate a frame. Some time after the career of her miseries began, the Indians selected a couple of their young men to marry her daughters. The fright and disgust which the intelligence of this intention occasioned to these poor young creatures, added infinitely to the sorrows and perplexities of their frantic mother. To prevent the hated connection, all the activity of female resource was called into exertion. She found an opportunity of conveying to the governor a petition, that her daughters might be received into a convent for the sake of securing the salvation of their souls. Happily the pious fraud succeeded.

About the same time the savages separated, and carried off her other five children into different tribes.... She was ransomed by an elderly French officer for four hundred livres. Of no avail were the cries of this tender mother.... a mother desolated by the loss of her children, who were thus torn from her fond embraces, and removed many hundred miles from each other, into the utmost recesses of Canada. With them (could they have been kept together) she would most willingly

have wandered to the extremities of the world, and accepted as a desirable portion the cruel lot of slavery for life. But she was precluded from the sweet hope of ever beholding them again. The insufferable pang of parting, and the idea of eternal separation, planted the arrows of despair deep in her soul. Though all the world was no better than a desert, and all its inhabitants were then indifferent to her, yet the loveliness of her appearance in sorrow had awakened affections which, in the aggravation of her troubles, were to become a new source of afflictions.

The officer who bought her of the Indians had a son, who also held a commission, and resided with his father. During her continuance in the same house, at St. John's, the double attachment of the father and the son, rendered her situation extremely distressing. It is true, the calmness of age delighted to gaze respectfully on her beauty; but the impetuosity of youth was fired to madness by the sight of her charms. One day, the son, whose attentions had been long lavished upon her in vain, finding her alone in a chamber, forcibly seized her hand, and solemnly declared that he would now satiate the passion which she had so long refused to indulge. She recurred to entreaties, struggles, and tears, those prevalent female weapons which the distraction of danger not less than the promptness of genius is wont to supply; while he, in the delirium of vexation and desire, snatched a dagger, and swore he would put an end to her life if she persisted to struggle. Mrs. Howe, assuming the dignity of conscious virtue, told him it was what she most ardently wished, and begged him to plunge the poignard through her heart, since the mutual importunities and jealousies of such rivals had rendered her life, though innocent, more irksome and insupportable than death itself. Struck with a momentary compunction, he seemed to relent, and relax his hold; and she, availing herself of

his irresolution, or absence of mind, escaped down the stairs. In her disordered state she told the whole transaction to his father, who directed her, in future, to sleep in a small bed at the foot of that in which his wife lodged. The affair soon reached the governor's ears, and the young officer was, shortly afterwards, sent on a tour of duty to Detroit.

This gave her a short respite; but she dreaded his return, and the humiliating insults for which she might be reserved. Her children, too, were ever present to her melancholy mind. A stranger, a widow, a captive, she knew not where to apply for relief. She had heard of the name of Schuyler....she was yet to learn, that it was only another appellation for the friend of suffering humanity. As that excellent man was on his way from Quebec to the Jerseys, under a parole, for a limited time, she came, with feeble and trembling steps, to him. The same maternal passion which sometimes overcomes the timidity of nature in the birds, when plundered of their callow nestlings, emboldened her, notwithstanding her native diffidence, to disclose those griefs which were ready to devour her in silence. While her delicate aspect was heightened to a glowing blush, for fear of offending by an inexcusable importunity, or of transgressing the rules of propriety, by representing herself as being an object of admiration, she told, with artless simplicity, all the story of her woes.... Colonel Schuyler, from that moment, became her protector, and endeavoured to procure her liberty. The person who purchased her from the savages, unwilling to part with so fair a purchase, demanded a thousand livres as her ransom. But colonel Schuyler, on his return to Quebec, obtained from the governor an order, in consequence of which Mrs. Howe was given up to him for four hundred livres; nor did his active goodness rest until every one of her five sons was restored to her.

Business having made it necessary that colonel Schuyler should precede the prisoners who were exchanged, he recommended the fair captive to the protection of his friend Putnam. She had just recovered from the measles, when the party was preparing to set off for New-England. By this time the young French officer had returned, with his passion rather increased than abated by absence. He pursued her wheresoever she went, and, although he could make no advances in her affection, he seemed resolved, by perseverance, to carry his point. Mrs. Howe, terrified by his treatment, was obliged to keep constantly near major Putnam, who informed the young officer that he should protect that lady at the risk of his life.

In the long march from captivity, through an inhospitable wilderness, encumbered with five small children, she suffered incredible hardships. Though endowed with masculine fortitude, she was truly feminine in strength, and must have fainted by the way, had it not been for the assistance of major Putnam. There were a thousand good offices which the helplessness of her condition demanded, and which the gentleness of his nature delighted to perform. He assisted in leading her little ones, and in carrying them over the swampy grounds and runs of water, with which their course was frequently intersected. He mingled his own mess with that of the widow and the fatherless, and assisted them in supplying and preparing their provisions. Upon arriving within the settlements, they experienced a reciprocal regret at separation, and were only consoled by the expectation of soon mingling in the embraces of their former acquaintances and dearest connections.

After the conquest of Canada, in 1760, she made a journey to Quebec, in order to bring back her two daughters, whom she had left in a convent. She found one of them married to a French officer. The other having contracted a great

fondness for the religious sisterhood, with reluctance consented to leave them and return.

THE NEAPOLITAN BARON.

The following sketches will please those whose minds can overstep their own immediate circle, and draw motives of contentment from the miseries of others.

THE king represents a double person; as sovereign of the whole nation, and as baron, or a private proprietor of lordships and estates. As it is the law of the country, that the crown is heir to all barons who leave no relations, but such as are beyond the third degree, possessions are continually falling in to the king, who enjoys them with all the rights of a baron; and it is painful to remark, that those estates go to decay as soon as they fall into the royal hands.

The barons in the Terre di Lecce have, first, the criminal jurisdiction in their lordships, where they take cognizance of the whole process, and can condemn to death. The accused has indeed a power of making a variety of appeals; for he may first appeal to the tribunal of the lordship, of which however the judges are nominated by the lord; and in some places there is a privilege that he may again appeal to any one judge to be appointed by the baron in his lordship. From the baronial tribunal he may appeal to the supreme tribunal of the province, which consists of the governor, who has no vote, of the fiscal, the caporuota, the avvocato dei poveri, and two lawyers. From thence the appeal lies to the vicaria at Naples, and finally to the royal council of state. No one will be surprized that the retainers of the law should find their account in this long succession of appeals, which exists also in civil causes, to the great impediment of justice. For there likewise the baron takes the

first cognizance, and has one or two appeals, which indeed only take place in affairs of small import; the rest following the same course as in criminal cases.

The third baronial right is the tenth of every thing growing within the limits of his lordship.

Fourthly: In every feudo or lordship, the baron has the exclusive right of possessing an oven, an oil-press, a mill, a butcher's shop, and an inn; and in some places, even the fountain is the property of the baron; and all these are let by auction to the best bidder.

Fifthly: Some barons are entitled to road and bridge money, although the former are the worst in the world, and the latter are in a most dilapidated state.

Lordships situated upon the sea-coast possess also various rights of anchorage, salvage, fishery, and the like.

Finally: Nearly all possess the privilege, invented during the barbarous ages (and here called *cuneatico*), of enjoying every bride during the first night of her marriage; but although this is no longer required *in natura*, a certain sum of money may be demanded in lieu of it.

Besides these privileges, the baron has his own private possessions in the lordship, which he usually farms out for a third, or one half of the profits.

They also possess extensive tracts of wood-land and pasture ground, upon which they generally form studs, sheep-walks, and dairies.

All these rights, privileges, and casualties belong to the proprietors of the lordships: namely, to the king in his baronial capacity, to the nobility, the archbishops and bishops (upon whom whole lordships were liberally bestowed in former ages), and to the monasteries, to which also a great many appertain.

When it is considered that the subjects of these lordships likewise pay no small taxes to the crown, their condition will not appear the most enviable. But this admits of some exception: for some the pro-

prietor continually or generally resides upon his estate (as was very much the case about forty years since), and is at the same time a man of understanding; or where the fixed superintendant of the estate follows the orders of a mild and prudent baron, the subjects are generally in a very comfortable situation. With pleasure I recall to mind several such districts, where every countenance displayed the signs of contentment, where agriculture was upon the very best footing, and where various manufactories had attained the highest degree of perfection. It is true that the proprietors administered justice most impartially, that they seldom made any use of their privileges, and in general contented themselves with their tenths; at the same time that they formed many public or other useful institutions, spent their revenues upon the spot, and by their conduct gained such universal esteem and good-will, that many unhappy families flocked to them from other lordships, and were received with kindness, and a ten years exemption from the payment of the tenths. Such noble-minded barons still remain in the kingdom; and although they do not reside upon their estates so frequently as formerly, they pay frequent visits to them, or keep them in a prosperous condition by means of their stewards. Striking indeed is the difference between a flourishing baronial town and a royal one, or such as does not belong to a baron. These are chiefly committed to the care of a governor, who is usually of a poor or decayed family, receives no salary from the king, and either enriches himself in his post, or becomes quite a beggar; for as the town gives him but a very trifling salary, he must of necessity maintain himself as he can: and there are instances of such governors being confederates with smugglers and banditti. Besides that, the king draws a variety of duties from these towns, the inhabitants are forced to pay an annual tax to the town itself.

In short, the sum actually paid every year by an inhabitant of a royal town, exceeds what a baronial subject would pay to his lord, even were all his rights exacted. But if the baron be an oppressive and unthinking master, or if the steward be a worthless servant, the condition of the subject, and of the estate, is, indeed, so much the more pitiable. For the poor subject can not only with difficulty bear all the pecuniary charges with which he is burthened, and which are extorted from him in the most oppressive manner; but his complaints against injustice are useless, since his lord is the judge, and an eternal succession of appeals leads only to uncalculable expences. Such a tyrant is, indeed, finally punished in a manner that has terrified many from similar proceedings. For as the subjects are not *glebæ adscripti*, and the baron has only in a few places the right to the tenth of the moveables and immoveables, they are at liberty to leave the territory, and emigrate to a milder government; so that many estates have been depopulated, and the proprietors nearly ruined.

Formerly, and when the barons constantly resided upon their estates, this seldom happened; for they were too well acquainted with their interest, not to keep their estates in a flourishing condition, and too moderate in their expences to have recourse to oppressive expedients to gratify their wants; but since they have begun to relish the pleasures of the metropolis and the court, and bartered their venerable old castles for modern houses of cards, and the manly diversion of hunting for senseless games of chance, and for gilded carriages, in which they parade up and down the streets, in lazy dissipation of their time; and since in lieu of the hospitable table, where the noble actions of their worthy ancestors were circulated with the glass, their evenings are now passed in theatres, filled with pestilential vapours, where the nymphs, devoted to prostitution by their voluptuous manners, dress,

and conversation, enervate the minds of well-descended youth, and transform the descendants of many a valiant knight into painted monkeys and senseless chatterers; the iron chests are no longer filled with gold, and the treasure is replaced by accumulated lists of debts, for which the income of future years already is engaged. The education given to the young nobility in the capital, where they are exposed to such vicious examples, creates in them a decided aversion to the tranquil innocence of a country life, and gives rise to a variety of imaginary wants, and unheard of expences, which force them to oppress their subjects, who, if properly encouraged by the occasional presence of their lords, might soon be doubled, and, by a little better management, the estate put in a condition to answer the extraordinary expences of the proprietor. Such also is the cause of the decay of the royal lordships in the province of Lecce, and probably in other parts of the kingdom. Under the prince of Francavilla, who was a nobleman of singular qualities and attainments, these lordships were in the most prosperous condition; for he not only governed his subjects so mildly, as in a short time to double the population of his estates, but encouraged them to the improvement of agriculture by a variety of rewards, formed new colonies, and built villages, converted large tracts of wood-land and common pastures into arable land, and instituted schools and manufactories. The better to accomplish his benevolent designs, he frequently resided upon his estates, and animated every thing by his presence, until death put an end to his projects. Peace be to the ashes of that excellent man, who was esteemed by strangers, and idolized by his vassals; and whose great defects, common to all wealthy princes, were eclipsed by his still greater virtues. After his death a royal steward was set over his estates; but instead of leaving him at liberty to act according as circumstances

might point out, for the benefit of the property, he was so much under the controul of the council of finance at Naples, that he could not even venture to sow the ground without their orders. The melancholy consequences of giving to persons resident in the capital the management of an estate at the distance of 150 miles, and which they had never even seen, may easily be imagined. The population is already decreased one third; the newly cultivated lands again lie waste, and the manufactories are totally annihilated.

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH OF
GENERAL BOWLES.

WILLIAM AUGUSTUS BOWLES was born in Frederic county, in Maryland, about the year 1764. Fascinated from his cradle, with the idea of a military life, when but thirteen years of age he fled from under the paternal roof, and determined to gratify his romantic wishes; and after surmounting a variety of difficulties, and undergoing the almost incredible fatigues of a long march through the woods, he arrived safe in the British camp at Philadelphia; here he was received as a volunteer into an old regiment of foot, and soon after obtained a commission in a corps* commanded by lieutenant colonel James Chalmers.

Towards the autumn of 1778, he embarked for Jamaica, and afterwards proceeded to Pensacola, in West Florida. At the latter place he was deprived of his commission, and dismissed from the British army.

Bowles submitted to his fate, not merely with a manly fortitude, but even with the appearance of joy: instead of attempting to depreciate the melancholy lot which seemed to await him, he appeared gay, unconcerned, and happy at having regained his liberty. It is thus he is described at this period by a brother

officer, who has drawn up a memoir relative to the early part of his life.

"Behold then this disbanded young soldier; his last shilling gone; too proud to beg, and too independent to stoop to menial offices; an uncultivated and savage country around him; no guide but chance, and no resource but his own fortitude; behold him on the brink of apparently inevitable ruin!"

But Fortune, whose peculiar care he seems to have been, stepped in to save him. A party of the Creek nation were on their return home from Pensacola, whither they had come to receive their annual presents; and young Bowles, delighted with the novelty of situation now opened to him, joined the party, having thrown his regimental coat, in contempt of his oppressors, into the sea.

A situation so flattering to the independence natural to the heart of man, had doubtless many attractions; but whether through the sameness of the scene, or a restlessness of disposition constitutional in him, or actuated through pride to show himself once more among those who had reduced him to the appearance of a savage, he left his protectors, after having resided with them a few months, (probably with an intention to return) and came unattended to Pensacola. When he arrived on the opposite shore of the bay, he found a hoghead, which some British ship had left behind them; and Bowles, impatient of delay, without waiting for any other conveyance, like an Esquimaux, with the difference of a hoghead for a boat, the branch of a tree his mast, a blanket his sail, and a few stones his ballast, navigated the extensive shores of the harbour, in the day procuring the food of life, and beguiling the tediousness of time by fowling and fishing, and at night regaling on his prey; the sky his canopy, and the earth his bed.

In this very hoghead, perhaps, his bosom first throbbed with the desire of nautical knowledge; and here, also, he first had occasion to

* The Maryland loyalists.

seek for resources in himself alone ; resources which, at some future day, were to shield him in the hour of danger, and which alone could complete him for the leader of a brave and gallant nation. But this precarious and hazardous livelihood did not last long. The frost of 1779 will be too long remembered in the Floridas ; and young Bowles, almost naked, superior to the injuries of men, found in the elements an enemy which neither strength of constitution nor fortitude of mind could withstand. He wanted shelter, and it was not long before he received it. Among the inhabitants of the town who saw his situation, there was one, a baker by profession, who had a heart to commiserate and to relieve him. Under the roof of this hospitable stranger he remained the greatest part of the winter, who, finding him a strong and robust lad, thought it but reasonable that he should assist to make the bread which he so plentifully ate.

Highly impressed, as no doubt he was, with a sense of obligation for such unmerited goodness, an aversion to labour, peculiar to the habits in which he had so lately indulged, made him reject the proposal, and he would again have been exposed to all his former dangers but for his old friends the Creeks.

The extraordinary inclemency of the season had brought them down for presents, and Bowles once more returned with them, and remained near two years. The friendly character of North American savages, when not irritated by resentment, or made sanguinary through thirst of revenge, is well known. During this period, such was their mutual regard, that he strengthened their ties of friendship by marrying a daughter of one of their chiefs. Thus he became doubly united to them, both from inclination and the ties of blood ; and his children were living pledges of their father's fidelity.

Habit had now confirmed his predilection for a state of nature ; and, on the commencement of hostilities

between Great Britain and Spain, he was thought worthy of being enrolled among the fighting men of this warlike nation. Nor did he discredit their choice. His conduct throughout the war was eminently distinguished for coolness and vigour in action ; and the most eminent chiefs pointed him out as an example worthy of imitation.

Mr. Bowles, increasing in the favour and esteem of the Indians, was raised to be their leader. On account of his attachment to the interest of Great Britain, he has suffered much from the court of Spain ; but nothing appears sufficient, from the accounts before us, to alter the steady purpose of his pursuits. The interests of the Indians appear to engage his attention and his assiduity, and no doubt he will do much towards their civilization and happiness.

A ROMISH CONVENT IN ENGLAND.

By a late traveller.

AT eight o'clock of a pleasant morning, in the beginning of July, I left Dorchester, in company with two other gentlemen, one of whom had previously visited the monastery, and kindly undertook the office of guide. After a ride of about eleven miles, over downs, covered with flocks of sheep, we declined on the right, into a small valley overhung with woods. The view at the extremity of this valley is beautifully terminated by the English Channel, and in its centre is situated Lulworth-castle, an antique Gothic edifice, consisting of four round towers, connected by as many curtains. As strangers are permitted to see the inside of the castle, we alighted at the principal entrance, on each side of which are two Latin inscriptions, the one commemorating the extended toleration granted to the Roman catholics, in 1780, the other recording a visit from his present majesty, with

which Mr. Weld was honoured a few years ago. Passing through the hall, we were ushered into a saloon, a large lightsome apartment, at one end of which there was an organ, which was played during the time of our stay in the house. From each principal apartment there is a short passage leading to a room constructed in the tower adjacent, which is used as a bed-chamber. The drawing-room and library are spacious and elegantly furnished. In the pleasure grounds is a handsome Roman catholic chapel, composed of two vestibules, and a rotunda between them. The altar-piece is magnificent, being adorned by three good paintings.

From the castle, we walked through the fields for about the space of a mile before we arrived at the monastery. This edifice is built of very rude materials, and in a very rude style. Its immediate neighbourhood presents a picture of bleak desolation. The hills are destitute of wood, and the east wind, sweeping from the channel, pinches the early shoots of vegetation. Ringing at the gate of the monastery, we were received by the porter. It is impossible to give an accurate idea of the hideousness of this man's dress, which was composed of a tunic made of coarse, thick, and heavy woolen cloth. Over his shoulders he wore a cope made of the same material; this was partly thrown back, so that his face was visible: but the other monks, who were clad precisely in the same manner as the porter, covered their visages, so that nothing but their eyes and noses could be seen. Their stockings are made of coarse cloth, and their shoes are wooden, and about three inches thick in the sole. After asking if we had any women in our party, and being answered in the negative, the porter attended us to the refectory. This is a very plain room, with white-washed walls, furnished with a rude table, and two or three wooden bottomed chairs. We were next conducted

to the dining-room. A specimen of the soup and bread, the only victuals allowed to be eaten by the monks, lay upon the table. The appearance of the soup, I must confess, turned my stomach. The bread was absolutely black. Of this fare, the fraternity partake twice a day in summer, and once only in winter. A wooden bowl and spoon, and a coarse earthen-ware cup for each person, composed the whole of their table-utensils. We were next ushered into a kind of common sitting-room, where we found about two dozen of superstitious books, mostly in French, and some few in Latin. This was the whole of their library. The chapel is neat, but plain, excepting the altar, which is a little ornamented. Passing from the chapel through a cloister, we visited the burying-ground, which occupies a small inner court, overgrown with rank weeds, and tall luxuriant grass. Two graves, already tenanted, are marked by wooden crosses; and one grave is always kept open ready to receive the next deceased. Our conductor assured us, that each individual of the fraternity prayed sincerely that he himself might soon become the occupant. At this I am not surprised; for such misery, and such a degradation of human nature, as is exhibited within the precincts of these walls, I never elsewhere witnessed. Having surveyed the lower story, we were shown up stairs into the dormitory, a long narrow apartment, lighted by a single window at the end opposite to the door. In this one apartment are twenty-four or twenty-five beds, or rather cells, separated from each other by wooden partitions. In these cells, the whole fraternity repose on bare boards, covered with only a blanket and a rug. They rise every night at twelve o'clock, at which hour they go to prayers. This exercise employs them till four, when they go to work in the farm or garden, or in domestic occupations. At eleven they assemble to dinner, and at seven they retire to rest. None of the brotherhood, excepting the

porter, are permitted to speak, unless by special permission of the superior. The monks whom we met did not so much as look at us. When we approached them, they turned aside their heads, and crossed themselves in silence. The stillness of the place was awful.... Seventeen men and five boys compose the present society; if society that union may be called, whose very essence is unsociability. For the use of these cenobites Mr. Weld has assigned the monastery, and a farm of sufficient extent to furnish them with the necessaries of life. Their superfluous produce they dispose of at the neighbouring market, where they also purchase such few articles as they may happen to want in their simplicity of domestic arrangement.

The porter, though one of the brotherhood, was sufficiently communicative. He complained, indeed, that the superior, by continuing him for two years in an office which ought to be occupied by each brother in his turn, had grievously interrupted those devout meditations in which it was his ardent wish to be uninterruptedly employed. Intercourse with strangers, he said, led his thoughts back to that world which he wished to forget. I was not a little surprised, when, on my taking leave of this gentleman, who so earnestly aspired after a separation from the world, I was hesitating, in French, a short acknowledgement of his polite attention, he cast his eyes on the ground, with a modest humility, half extended his dirty paw, and uttered, in a tone of the gentlest complaisance, "*Tant qu'il vous plaira, monsieur.*" A few shillings was the toll levied on our exit from this gloomy abode of ignorance and nastiness, which I quitted with a sigh, breathed in compassion of the lot of those whom vice or folly drive for the expiation of real or fancied iniquities into the community of La Trappe.

ACCOUNT OF THE MAL'ARIA, OR PESTILENTIAL ATMOSPHERE OF ITALY.

PRESENZANO is a considerable town, in the kingdom of Naples, seated upon the side of a lofty hill, the situation of almost all the towns and villages whose environs are unhealthy. In the morning the labourer quits his nest, and descends to the plains, where he patiently bears the heat of the sun during the whole day, without fearing any detriment to his health; but as soon as the evening commences, he flies back to his asylum, where he fearlessly abandons himself to sleep during the night; whereas one hour's repose upon the plains would be fatal to his existence. This effect is attributed to the mal'aria, which signifies somewhat more than merely unwholesome air. During my abode at Naples, several travellers who ridiculed the dread which is entertained there of the mal'aria, and who treated the effect of an almost unavoidable death, or at least of a most dangerous disorder, arising from sleeping in it, as a childish fancy, afterwards forfeited their lives to their incredulity and rashness. The most delightful parts of southern Italy are exposed to this pestilence; for, without mentioning the well known Maremme Pontine, this evil is common to the flat parts of the provinces of Teramo and Abruzzo; near the sea, to almost all the northern part of the Terra di Lavoro, to extensive tracts in Apulia, and the two Principati; to almost all the coast of the two Calabrias, and to a considerable part of Sicily. From the beginning of June to nearly the middle of November, those countries exhale a pestiferous and mortal vapour; and the unhappy traveller, who is there overtaken by sleep, quickly feels an universal lassitude and heaviness in his limbs, a painful head-ach, and want of appetite, the forerunners of a slow fever, which soon becomes putrid,

and in a few days put an end to his existence. Many physicians have assured me that it is almost impossible to free the body from the poison thus imbibed by breathing.... The warmth with which the Neapolitans caution every stranger against this pestiferous air, and point out to him the places where he may repose without danger, does honour to their good nature. It may indeed arise in part from their dread of this merciless enemy ; for, though as natives of the country, they may be supposed to be less subject to it, yet the cadaverous countenances, and short lives of those who are forced to reside in such situations, sufficiently prove that the mal'aria is equally fatal to the natives. I cannot properly account for the origin of this pestilential air ; for although it chiefly prevails, and is of the most noxious kind in the morasses, from whence the sun draws up the fatal exhalations, yet large woody tracts, and extensive flat wastes, are also rendered uninhabitable by it ; and it has even been proved, that dry and well cultivated, but flat and low tracts of land, are likewise subject to it. In short, the paradise of Europe, whose advantages so eminently distinguish it from our northern countries, is in this particular far behind our wild and rough, but healthy hills and vallies.

IS MARRIAGE OR CELIBACY MOST ELIGIBLE ? OR, IS THE MATRON OR THE OLD MAID THE BEST MEMBER OF SOCIETY ?

THE merits of the childless, and of those who have brought up large families, should be compared without prejudice, and their different influence on the general happiness of society justly appreciated.

The matron who has reared a family of ten or twelve children, and whose sons, perhaps, may be fighting the battles of their country, is

apt to think that society owes her much ; and this imaginary debt, society is, in general, fully inclined to acknowledge. But if the subject be fairly considered, and the respected matron weighed in the scales of justice against the neglected old maid, it is possible that the matron might kick the beam. She will appear rather in character of a monopolist, than of a great benefactor to the state. If she had not married and had so many children, other members of the society might have enjoyed this satisfaction ; and there is no particular reason for supposing that her sons would fight better for their country than the sons of other women. She has therefore rather substracted from, than added to, the happiness of the other parts of society. The old maid, on the contrary, has exalted others by depressing herself. Her self-denial has made room for another marriage, without any additional distress ; and she has not, like the generality of men, in avoiding one error, fallen into its opposite. She has really and truly contributed more to the happiness of the rest of the society arising from the pleasures of marriage, than if she had entered into this union herself, and had besides portioned twenty maidens with a hundred pounds each ; whose particular happiness would have been balanced, either by an increase in the general difficulties of rearing children and getting employment, or by the necessity of celibacy in twenty other maidens somewhere else. Like the truly benevolent man in an irremedial scarcity, she has diminished her own consumption, instead of raising up a few particular people, by pressing down the rest. On a fair comparison, therefore, she seems to have a better founded claim to the gratitude of society than the matron. Whether we could always completely sympathize with the motives of her conduct, has not much to do with the question. The particular motive which influenced the matron

to marry, was certainly not the good of her country. To refuse a proper tribute of respect to the old maid, because she was not directly influenced in her conduct by the desire of conferring on society a certain benefit, which, though it must undoubtedly exist, must necessarily be so diffused as to be invisible to her, is in the highest degree impolitic and unjust. It is expecting a strain of virtue beyond humanity. If we never reward any persons with our approbation, but those who are exclusively influenced by motives of general benevolence, this powerful encouragement to good actions will not be very often called into exercise.

There are very few women who might not have married in some way or other. The old maid, who has either never formed an attachment, or has been disappointed in the object of it, has, under the circumstances in which she has been placed, conducted herself with the most perfect propriety; and has acted a much more virtuous and honourable part in society, than those women who marry without a proper degree of love, or at least of esteem, for their husbands; a species of immorality which is not reprobated as it deserves.

If, in comparisons of this kind, we should be compelled to acknowledge that, in considering the general tendency of population to increase beyond the means of subsistence, the conduct of the old maid had contributed more to the happiness of the society than that of the matron; it will surely appear, not only unjust, but strikingly impolitic, not to proportion our tribute of honour and estimation more fairly according to their respective merits. Though we should not go so far as to reward single women with particular distinctions; yet the plainest principles of equity and policy require, that the respect which they might claim from their personal character should, in no way whatever, be impeded by their particular situation; and that, with regard to rank,

precedence, and the ceremonial attentions of society, they should be completely on a level with married women.

It is still however true, that the life of a married person, with a family, is of more consequence to society than that of a single person; because, when there is a family of children already born, it is of the utmost importance that they should be well taken care of, and well educated; and of this there is very seldom so fair a probability when they have lost their parents. Our object should be merely to correct the prevailing opinions with regard to the duty of marriage; and, without positively discouraging it, to prevent any persons from being attracted, or driven into this state by the respect and honour which await the married dame, and the neglect and inconveniences attendant on the single woman.

It is perfectly absurd as well as unjust, that a giddy girl of sixteen should, because she is married, be considered by the forms of society as the protector of women of thirty, should come first into the room, should be assigned the highest place at table, and be the prominent figure to whom the attentions of the company are more particularly addressed. Those who believe that these distinctions, added to the very long confinement of single women to the parental roof, and their being compelled, on all occasions, to occupy the back ground of the picture, have not an influence in impelling many young women into the married state, against their natural inclinations, and without a proper degree of regard for their intended husbands, do not, as I conceive, reason with much knowledge of human nature. And till these customs are changed, as far as circumstances will admit, and the respect and liberty which women enjoy are made to depend more upon personal character and propriety of conduct, than upon their situation as married or single; it must be acknowledged that, among the higher ranks of

life, we encourage marriage by considerable premiums.

If all those who are afflicted with hereditary diseases and imperfections, would resolutely abstain from propagation, it is probable that the health and beauty of the human race would sensibly improve; and there can be no doubt that the various departments of society would still be sufficiently stocked with active members. Other motives justify, and are promoting, the increase of celibacy. Connected manners may follow. Monastic institutions were rationally encouraged in the over-peopled countries of ancient times, for the purpose of separating the imperfect portion of the species from the more finished portion, which was in duty bound to live a creative life. These institutions may have become receptacles of indolence, or have degenerated into manufactories of superstition; but they are assuredly capable of an organization which would contribute to the comfort of age, to the amusement of singleness, to the progress of literature, and to the accommodation of penury. Vows may be foolish; vigilance, unwholesome; segregation, dull; and uniforms, ridiculous: but Charity will remember with gratitude the sisters of Mercy, and Learning record with veneration the instructive toils of the Benedictines. Tasks of beneficence or utility, adapted to the rank and education of the component individuals, might be distributed among these endowed public boarding-houses: in some, children might be taught to read; in others, statesmen to legislate: here might arise an hospital for nurses, there of muses: here might be manufactured tobacco-pipes, there encyclopædias.

SICARD'S MODE OF TEACHING THE DEAF AND DUMB.

HE first of all places before his pupil several simple articles well known in common life, as a key, a

knife, a watch, a pencil: he exhibits the various uses of these instruments before him; and when he is well acquainted with their uses by the exercise of his vision, he gradually informs him that he has occasion for them, by representing the action they produce. From this simple sign of the fingers alone, he advances to drawing, and delineates these different instruments on paper. The object and the sign of the object hereby mutually represent each other: by touching the object he expresses his want of the drawing, by touching the drawing he expresses his want of the object. Signs are thus made the representations and symbols of things that are absent, and pave the way most commodiously for the knowledge of letters. This, in reality, is acquired by writing the letters, by which any of the above signs are spelt, against the drawings or signs themselves, and exciting and renewing the attention of the pupil to them till he is acquainted as deeply with their representative power as with that of the drawings or hieroglyphics. To acquaint him with the order in which they occur in the alphabet, and with the difference between vowels and consonants, he is gradually taught the idea that the former have a binding or connecting power over the latter, without the exercise of which they could never be united into words, or become symbolical of things. The letters of the alphabet are therefore on this account, divided by M. Sicard into *connecting* and *connected*, as terms far more familiar and easy to be comprehended by his pupil than the terms vowels and consonants; the power of each vowel or connecting letter is discovered to him by frequent reference to a variety of words in which it occurs, and the meaning of which is first of all taught by introducing the things for which they stand, or their representative drawings. Some deviation is also made in the accustomed order of the consonants of the alphabet, for the sake of greater sim-

plicity and expedition in learning: the pupil is instructed, in the first instance, to regard P and B as letters whose power, in pronunciation, is nearly similar; C, Q, K, and G are, in like manner, regarded as characters of the same family, and between which it is not worth while at first to make any essential distinction; the same is represented between F and V, M and N, S and Z; by which means the initiating consonants for the deafly-dumb pupil are reduced from nineteen to about seven or eight only, the powers and characters of which, being few in number, and all of them widely distinct from each other, may be easily explained and comprehended. In a manner somewhat similar, and with equal ease, he is taught the science of numbers.



THE MODERN STATE OF TEMPE
AND OLYMPUS: NOW CALLED
AMBELAKIA.

From a French Traveller.

POETS have never seen Tempe and Olympus in these views, which are more interesting in advanced age than in the enthusiasm of youth. Ambelakia is a very flourishing spot, having trebled its number of inhabitants in the last fifteen years; and now contains four thousand souls, who are employed wholly in dyeing, and 'live like a swarm of bees in a hive.'

Neither the vices nor the languor of idleness are known in this spot; the hearts of the Ambelakiates are pure, and their countenances serene. Slavery, which blights the harvests on the banks of the Peneus at their feet, has not ascended to their cottages. No Turk is permitted to dwell among them; and they are governed, like their ancestors, by their own magistrates. Twice the furious mussulmen of Larissa, jealous of their ease and happiness, attempted to scale the mountains and pillage their habitations: twice they

were repelled by crowds, who quitted the vat to assume the musket.

Every hand, even those of children, is employed in the dye-houses of Ambelakia; and, while the men dye the cotton, the women prepare and spin it. In the whole district they are not acquainted with the spinning-wheel; the work is executed with the spindle; and the thread is, of course, less strong, round, and equable, but more soft, silky, and tenacious. It is less brittle and more durable, bleaches more easily, and dyes more completely. It is pleasing to see the women of Ambelakia, each armed with her rock, and gossiping on the seats at their doors....but the pleasure is instantaneous; on the appearance of a stranger, they immediately retire and hide themselves; showing, like Galatea, in their precipitate flight, their wish to fly and to be seen:

"Et fugit ad salices, et se cupit ante
videri."

The eye can only catch a glance of these women; but it sees with admiration the bold and elegant Grecian shapes, which have served as models for some of the most beautiful statues in the world.

For my own part, I shall never forget what I saw in my first journey to Ambelakia and its neighbourhood....A numerous population, living wholly on the produce of its manufactures, and displaying, among the rocks of Ossa, the interesting union of a family of friends and brothers; the charming institution, banished by the Jesuits to the forests of Paraguay, transplanted, as by enchantment, to the precipices and the vallies of Tempe; the ancient Greek prejudices subdued; the taste for trifling subtleties replaced by a love of solid studies; national vanity checked by generous sentiments; every grand and liberal idea flourishing on a soil devoted, during twenty centuries, to slavery; the original Greek character sprouting with its former luxuriance in the midst of the caverns and torrents of Pelion;...in a word, all the virtues

and all the talents of the ancients rising again in a corner of modern Greece.

SKETCH OF AMSTERDAM, TAKEN FROM THE LETTER OF A TRAVELLER, WHO VISITED THAT CITY IN JULY, 1799.

AMSTERDAM is one of the largest, and I believe I may add, one of the most beautiful cities of Europe, and strongly fortified. The streets are all broad, well paved, and, as in the other cities of the Netherlands, kept very clean. The most beautiful of the streets are incontestibly the four called *gragts*, which derive their names from the four broad canals which flow in a right line through the city for about four miles and a half. These canals have, on each side, broad streets, planted with rows of trees, and connected by beautiful drawbridges..... But then this pleasantness is counterbalanced by many disagreeable circumstances. The canals serve to the inhabitants as a receptacle for all kinds of filth, which they cast into the water from their houses; this occasions, especially in summer, a pestilent and intolerable stench.... In winter, the canals send forth a nebulous exhalation, which begins to rise at about sun-set, and continues often till nine o'clock in the morning: this fog is frequently so dense, that it is impossible to distinguish the street from the canal, whence many an unwary stranger loses his life by falling into the water. These exhalations likewise force the inhabitants to observe the high degree of cleanliness which prevails here, and which is absolutely necessary for the preservation of their health and of the external beauty of their houses, which would otherwise soon be covered with a thick black incrustation. Next to these *gragts*, the most beautiful street of Amsterdam is the *Kalvers straat*, not so much on account of its breadth and cleanliness (for it is

narrow and dirty) but because it extends above a mile and a half in length, and every house presents to the eye of the stranger new objects to occupy his attention and to excite his desires. The whole street is one continued fair, where every thing, from the most trifling necessities of life, to the most costly articles of luxury may be purchased; every house is a warehouse, vying with one another in the rarity and richness of the commodities they contain. The politician may here meet with a considerable fund of entertainment; partly because he will observe, with smiling astonishment, that a variety of English manufactures (the importation and selling of which is forbidden by several decrees) are publicly exposed for sale; partly because he will here find a number of his fraternity assembled, as the principal coffee-houses are in this street, probably on account of its vicinity to the town-house.... Of the other streets none is peculiarly distinguished, though those nearest to the haven and on the edge, will appear the most interesting to a stranger, who never before saw a large commercial city, both on account of the prospect, and of the incessant bustle of the busy multitude. "*Olim meminisse juvabit*," exclaims the Amsterdam merchant when he now passes along this part of the city; and whoever has, during the present war, been in Hamburg, will certainly find himself comparatively lonely and unsatisfied in the harbour of Amsterdam.

The most disagreeable part of the city is the quarter of the Jews, who, before they were admitted to the rank of citizens, were obliged to dwell, with very few exceptions, in a distinct part of the city, which, indeed, lies within the gates and walls of Amsterdam, but is separated by the Amstel from the habitations of the christians, communicating therewith only by means of a bridge. The filth in the streets inhabited by the Jews, and the excessive nastiness of the houses, sur-

pass all power of description; and are more disgusting, as one is quite unaccustomed here to such a sight. The Jews themselves are, for the most part, clothed in dirty rags, make a disagreeable noise, crowd around the stranger, begging of him, and teasing him to buy some of their wares; and, if an opportunity offers, picking his pocket, so that one cannot be too much on his guard against the tricks of such dexterous and cunning thieves.

The houses in Amsterdam are in general built in an old-fashioned style: only a few in the *Heerengracht* are distinguished by a better taste. As the population of Amsterdam...before the last revolution, by which this city, from obvious causes, lost a number of its inhabitants...had, by degrees, greatly increased; this naturally occasioned a want of room, the consequence of which was, that most of the private houses are so narrow, and the broadest of them has not above six windows in front. The most beautiful houses are in the *gragts*, which are inhabited by private persons and placemen, and therefore are the dearest*. But here too the houses are narrow from want of room; they have, therefore, sunk stories, through which the usual entrance leads: but, besides, every house has steps, which lead directly into the first story, and the way by which strangers and visitors usually enter.

The public edifices in Amsterdam deserve the most honourable testimony: here there has been no sparing of the ground; for they are all large, and some of them beautiful buildings. Among the rest, the house

* A house with three windows in front, which has from four to five good apartments, some bed-rooms, and a small garden, is let for 12 or 1400 florins annual rent. Good houses are now dearer in Amsterdam than before the revolution. This is probably owing to so many placemen and officers of the state, who before that period dwelt at the Hague, having migrated to this city.

belonging to the society known by the name of *Felix Meritis* is particularly distinguished by its noble style of architecture.

On the other hand there is a total want of beautiful and spacious public places or squares. That in which the town-house...and now likewise the tree of liberty...stand, is very irregular, and too much crowded with buildings. The market-places, as the butter-market, the water-market, &c. scarce deserve to be mentioned. The most pleasant spot in the whole city I found on the bridge known by the name of *Pont des Amowrena*, where there is an excellent prospect. On the one side I glanced over the river down upon the city, and the busy bustle of its laborious inhabitants;...I overlooked many of the bridges situated lower; and the houses, which, with the row of trees on the Amstel, form two beautiful side-lines, end in the back-ground in the shape of an amphitheatre, to which the lofty spires that emulously rise at a greater distance in the city, give a picturesque appearance. On the other side, the eye glides adown the silver stream of the Amstel, dwells upon a thousand small boats, *trekchuyts*, and larger vessels, with which the river is covered, reposes on the shades of the trees that adorn its banks, delights in the bustle of the busy multitude, in the splendour of the horsemen, the coaches, and the yachts, till, with the stream, it loses itself in the obscurity of distance.

This is the most charming spot in Amsterdam, and, I am almost tempted to say, the only one which can have any charms for a stranger. Public walks there are none, except what are called *Plantagen* be reckoned such: but these consist of only some rectilinear stiff rows of trees, planted, however, at so great a distance from one another, that they only serve to excite an unsatisfied longing after shade. He who has accustomed himself to seek for delight and refreshment in the charms of nature...to awaken his slumbering faculties, and raise his

depressed spirits by the sight of the various and grand creations of her unceasing activity; or to animate his heart with fresh courage and hope by her soft and blissful pictures....he must not choose Amsterdam for his place of abode. The greatest uniformity reigns in the circumjacent country....every where meadows, water, dykes, painted houses, stiff gardens, few trees, and, where there are any, planted in rectilinear rows! He who cannot view every thing with the speculating and calculating eye of the inhabitants of this city, he who cannot surrender his whole soul to a desire of gain, let him avoid this place, where the selfish spirit of commercial speculation, and a corrupt taste, blast all the buddings of nature, and render the mind callous to every impression of the sublime and beautiful.

Certainly, though Amsterdam surpass Hamburg in external beauty, yet it is far behind the latter as to the beauty of the surrounding country, and the state of society.

All that makes a residence in Hamburg agreeable, is wanting here, where there are neither public nor private entertainments, which can have any charms for a man of a cultivated mind.

Public institutions for the advancement of knowledge there are very few. A well-known one is the *Athenaeum*: but what interest can a public school excite, whose professors possess, indeed, a great deal of knowledge, but that only partial, and who, at the same time, are full of the most ridiculous self-conceit! I conversed with one of them about the Critical Philosophy: he owned to me that he had not studied it; "for," said he, "it has caused the disasters of our country!" meaning the last revolution. What intentional ignorance and pertinacious intolerance! It would lead me too far, if I attempted to give you an idea of the poverty of the Amsterdammers in the endowments of a cultivated mind: it altogether surpassed my expectation. Not that I

would deny that I have met with individuals who possessed a variety of elegant knowledge, especially in physics and natural history, which are without doubt the favourite sciences of the Dutch. A laudable proof hereof is the celebrated society *Felix Meritis*, which causes public lectures to be read on subjects relative to these sciences by some of its members....who are divided into active and passive. In their assembly-house, where all the members daily meet to read the newspapers and to play, they have a cabinet of natural history, which is not yet very considerable, but a good foundation is laid for a more complete collection. In the house of the society *Felix Meritis* young painters likewise receive instructions in their art. In general, indeed, the Amsterdammers are fond of painting and drawing: and at the house of every man of rank and *bon ton* you may be certain of meeting with a more or less good collection of engravings and pictures, the latter commonly of the Flemish school. Since the revolution, a collection of pictures, taken from the different public buildings, has been placed in a large apartment of the town-house. In this collection there are many excellent pieces; among others, Rembrandt's celebrated night-piece....the *Patrole*.

This, then, is all I have to say to you of the state of learning in Amsterdam. I should, indeed, wish to make a few remarks on the here prevalent mode of education, but this is, perhaps, not the proper place for such discussions: and as willingly will you dispense with my treating on the favourite theme of the Amsterdammers, viz. theology, as here likewise I must lead you through fields overgrown with thorns and thistles, and could entertain you only with proofs of the good intentions and restless zeal of the Dutch divines, especially if you give me permission to serve up a catalogue of the refutations of Paine's deistical principles, which appeared during my residence there. I now conduct you to the public amusements: you

may yourself decide, whether the cultivated stranger will find in them a compensation for the want of literary entertainment.

In this list, the first place is due to the theatres. There are three of them, the German, French, and Dutch. At the first, operas only are performed, in which Mad. Lange (who acted before on the Hamburg stage) performs the principal parts, and Mr. Galhaar gains much applause as buffoon. The orchestra is pretty good...and the music generally commences with some patriotic air; as indeed it does at all the theatres. He who can accommodate himself to the taste of the Hollanders, will not be altogether unsatisfied at the Dutch theatre. Several of the actors perform tolerably well: the most esteemed are Mr. and Mrs. Suvek, who act the heroic parts.... No regard is here paid to the selecting of proper pieces, or rather there are no good ones to select, at least I saw only bad ones, and several that properly were only fit for children. The dresses and scenery at this theatre are excellent; and the dancers have arrived at very great proficiency in their art. It is worth the while to see such a ballet as *Lodoiska*, in which managers and dancers exert all their powers to satisfy the connoisseur. At the French theatre, M. Bertin and Schwenzer particularly distinguished themselves: and by their departure the company lost two of its chief supports. A Parisian actor, named Baptiste, who, during my stay at Amsterdam, several times made his appearance in the buffoon parts, deservedly excited extraordinary attention. At this theatre, too, the choice of pieces for representation is regulated solely by the unfortunately very corrupt taste of the public: sometimes, however, they performed plays which were interesting on account of their allusions and reference to the history of the day.

Concerts are very frequent in Amsterdam; and, as may be supposed, differ much as to their degree

of excellence. The best are given in the concert-room at the *Felix Meritis*, but to these no one is admitted without a ticket from a member of the society. The other concerts are very seldom attended by persons of rank.

Public balls, routs, and dancing-parties, are indeed very often advertised; but there likewise one seldom meets with persons of a superior rank: these entertainments are only for the lower classes, and by the most of these they are frequented, not merely for the amusement of dancing, but with other by-views.

For men, the coffee-house is the chief place of recreation and centre of amusement. This appears from the extraordinary number of such houses, which are always crowded. Politics form the principal part of the entertainment here. They read as many newspapers as possible, and then discuss their contents, whilst smoking a pipe of tobacco. A few indeed occasionally play at chess or billiards; but rarely, however, and for the most part only young people.

From this short sketch you see that a man of a cultivated taste can find no recreation in the public amusements of Amsterdam; and his lot will appear still more worthy of commiseration, when I assure you, that for the polished stranger there is not entertainment to be found in private companies. This is not owing to any want of hospitality or obliging disposition on the part of the citizens of Amsterdam, but to their contracted and partial views of things. A letter of recommendation to a merchant of Hamburg procures innumerable advantages, interesting acquaintances, repeated invitations, instructors and companions to show him the curiosities of the city...in short, ONE recommendation is sufficient to render a sojournment in Hamburg extremely agreeable. In Amsterdam, on the contrary, the merchant, to whom you have a letter of introduction, gives you a most polite reception,

invites you to dinner on that or the following day. Here you find the company composed entirely of men (at most only the lady of the house) eat of the most exquisite dishes, drink wines still better, and converse on politics (for as a stranger is acquainted with neither the *chronique scandaleuse* nor the bargains of the change, and the Amsterdamers in general take no pleasure in other subjects, any other conversation cannot easily take place) and thus you have reaped the fruits of your recommendation, except, perhaps, that you may once more be fed in a similar manner.

One of the chief pleasures of the Amsterdamers is to give and partake of such dinners in select family parties, or to visit one another to tea; but then they rarely invite strangers; who, especially since the last revolution, are treated with far less kindness and hospitality than before; as since that period party-spirit rages with the most absolute sway, and has a most baneful influence on the public morals, on the state of society, and on the treatment of strangers. Into whatever company you go, they anxiously endeavour to find out your political and religious opinions: if they are repugnant to the principles professed by the company, you may be certain of not being again invited; on the contrary, you will find every possible obstacle thrown in your way during your stay in the city. If you imagine that you may guard against these inconveniences by remaining silent, you would soon be convinced of your mistake: they would interpret your silence and your actions till they thought they had found out to what party you belonged. This spirit of party is every where visible, and every where maintains its influence. I myself was present, when a cultivated and estimable man was refused admittance to the *Felix Meritis*, because he was attached to the orange party, and that society is composed of patriots!

HARRY PAULET.

HARRY PAULET, commonly called duke of Bolton, king of Vine-street, and governor of Lambeth marsh, a well-known public character, died lately in the above neighbourhood, and his remains were attended to the grave by a great number of persons whom his bounty had made comfortable.

Parsons, the comedian, speaking of the subject of the following particulars, frequently declared, with the greatest gravity, that he would rather expend a crown to hear Harry Paulet relate one of Hawke's battles, than sit, gratis, by the most celebrated orator of the day. There was (said Parsons) a manner in his heart-felt narrations, that was certain to bring his auditors into the very scene of action; and when he described the moment of victory, I have seen a dozen labouring men, at the crown public house, rise together, and, moved by an instantaneous impulse, give three cheers, while Harry took breath to recite more of his exploits. This man, whose love for his country could not be excelled, was, in the year 1758, master of an English vessel in North America, and traded up the river St. Lawrence; but being taken by the enemy, he remained a prisoner under Montcalm, at Quebec, who refused to exchange him, on account of his extensive knowledge of the coast, the strength of Quebec and Louisbourg, with the different soundings. They therefore came to a resolution to send him to France to be kept a prisoner during the war; and with such intent he was embarked on board a vessel ready to sail with dispatches to the French government. Being the only Englishman on board, Harry was admitted to the cabin, where he took notice one day, that the packet hung in an exposed situation in a canvas bag, for the purpose of being thrown overboard on any danger of being taken: this he marked as the object of a daring enterprise; and shortly after,

in consequence of the vessel being obliged to put into Vigo for provisions and intelligence, he put his design into execution. There were two English men of war lying at anchor, and Mr. Paulet thought this a proper opportunity to make his meditated attempt; he therefore one night, when all but the watch were asleep, took the packet out of the bag, and having fixed it in his mouth, silently let himself down to the water, and, to prevent being discovered, floated on his back to the bows of one of the English ships, where he secured himself by the cables, and calling for assistance, was immediately taken on board with the packet. The captain, charmed with his bold attempt, treated him with great humanity, and gave him a suit of scarlet clothes, trimmed with blue velvet and gold, which he retained to the day of his death. The dispatches being transcribed, proved to be of the utmost consequence to our affairs in North America; and Harry was sent with a copy of them post overland to Lisbon, from whence he was brought to Falmouth in a sloop of war, and immediately set out for London. Upon his arrival in town, he was examined by proper persons in the administration, and rewarded agreeable to the nature of his service; but, what is most remarkable, an expedition was instantly formed upon a review of these dispatches, and our successes in North America, under Wolfe and Saunders, are in some degree to be attributed to the attachment of Harry Paulet to the interest of his country.

For his services the government rewarded him with the pay of a lieutenant for life, by which, with other advantages, for Harry had ever been prudent, he was enabled to purchase a vessel: here Fame takes some liberty with his character, and asserts, that he used to run to the French coast, and now and then take in a cargo of brandy; but, be that as it may, Harry was one morning returning, when the French fleet had stolè out of Brest under Conflans,

while admiral Hawke was hid behind a rock off Ushant to watch the motions of the enemy. Mr. Paulet, loving his country better than his cargo, soon ran up to the British admiral, and demanding to speak with him, was ordered to make his vessel fast and come on board: upon his telling Hawke what he knew of the enemy, the admiral told him, if he was right, he would make his fortune; but if he had deceived him, by God he would hang him up at the yard-arm. The fleet was instantly under weigh, and upon Paulet's direction to the master (for he was an excellent pilot), the British fleet was presently brought between the enemy and their own coast; and now the admiral ordered Paulet into the vessel, and bade him make the best of his way; but Harry begged of the admiral, as he had discovered the enemies of his country, that he might be allowed to assist in beating them. This request was assented to by the commander; and Paulet had his station assigned, at which no man could behave better; and when the battle was over, this true-born Englishman was sent home covered with commendations, and rewarded with that which enabled him to live happy the remainder of his life. Mr. Paulet possessed a freehold estate in Cornhill, London; and, respecting the good he did with his income, there is not a poor being in the neighbourhood of Pedlar's acre, who does not testify with gratitude some act of benevolence performed for the alleviation of his poverty, by this humane heroic Englishman.

ACCOUNT OF LONG ISLAND.

By an English traveller.

AFTER leaving the immediate vicinage of New York, which stands at the southern extremity of the former of these two islands, but little is to be met with that deserves attention; the soil, indeed, is fertile, and

the face of the country is not unpleasingly diversified with rising grounds ; but there is nothing grand in any of the views which it affords, nor did I observe one of the numerous seats with which it is overspread, that was distinguished either for its elegant neatness or the delightfulness of its situation : none of them will bear any comparison with the charming little villas which adorn the banks of the Schuylkill near Philadelphia.

On Long Island much more will be found, in a picturesque point of view, to interest the traveller. On the western side in particular, bordering upon the Narrows, or that contracted channel between the islands, through which vessels pass in sailing to New York from the Atlantic, the country is really romantic. The ground here is very much broken, and numberless large masses of wood still remain standing, through the vistas in which you occasionally catch the most delightful prospects of the distant hills on Staten Island and the New Jersey shore, and of the water, which is constantly enlivened by vessels sailing to and fro.

To an inhabitant of one of the large towns on the coast of America, a country house is not merely desirable as a place of retirement from noise and bustle, where the owner may indulge his fancy in the contemplation of rural scenes, at a season when Nature is attired in her most pleasing garb, but also as a safe retreat from the dreadful maladies which of late years have never failed to rage with more or less virulence in these places during certain months. When at Philadelphia the yellow fever committed such dreadful havoc, sparing neither the rich nor the poor, the young nor the aged, who had the confidence to remain in the city, or were unable to quit it, scarcely a single instance occurred of any one of those falling a victim to its baneful influence, who lived but one mile removed from town, where was a free circulation of air, and who at the same

time studiously avoided all communication with the sick, or with those who had visited them ; every person therefore at Philadelphia, New York, Baltimore. &c. who is sufficiently wealthy to afford it, has his country habitation in the neighbourhood of these respective places, to which he may retire in the hot unhealthy season of the year ; but this delightful part of Long Island, of which I have been speaking, though it affords such a number of charming situations for little villas, is unfortunately too far removed from New York to be a convenient place of retreat to men so deeply engaged in commercial pursuits as are the greater number of the inhabitants of that city, and it remains almost destitute of houses ; whilst another part of the island, more conveniently situated, is crowded with them, although the face of the country is here flat and sandy, devoid of trees, and wholly uninteresting.

The permanent residents on Long Island are chiefly of Dutch extraction, and they seem to have inherited all the coldness, reserve, and covetousness of their ancestors. It is a common saying in New York, that a Long Island man will conceal himself in his house on the approach of a stranger ; and really the numberless instances of shyness I met with in the inhabitants seem to argue, that there was some truth in the remark. If you do but ask any simple question relative to the neighbouring country, they will eye you with suspicion, and evidently strive to disengage themselves from you ; widely different from the Anglo-Americans, whose inquisitiveness in similar circumstances would lead them to a thousand impertinent and troublesome enquiries, in order to discover what your business was in that place, and how they could possibly take any advantage of it. These Dutchmen are in general very excellent farmers ; and several of them have very extensive tracts of land under cultivation, for the produce of which there

is a convenient and ready market at New York. Amongst them are to be found many very wealthy men; but except a few individuals, they live in a mean, penurious, and most uncomfortable manner. The population of the island is estimated at about thirty-seven thousand souls, of which number near five thousand are slaves. It is the western part of the island which is the best inhabited; a circumstance to be ascribed, not so much to the fertility of the soil as its contiguity to the city of New York. Here are several considerable towns, as Flatbush, Jamaica, Brooklyn, Flushing, Utrecht; the three first-mentioned of which contain each upwards of one hundred houses. Brooklyn, the largest of them, is situated just opposite to New York, on the bank of the East River, and forms an agreeable object from the city.

The soil of Long Island is well adapted to the culture of small grain and Indian corn: and the northern part, which is hilly, is said to be peculiarly favourable to the production of fruit. The celebrated Newtown pippin, though now to be met with in almost every part of the state of New York, and good in its kind, is yet supposed by many persons to attain a higher flavour here than in any other part of America.

Of the peculiar soil of the plains that are situated towards the centre of this island, I have before had occasion to speak, when describing those in the western parts of the state of New York. One plain here, somewhat different from the rest, is profusely covered with stunted oaks and pines; but no grain will grow upon it, though it has been cleared, and experiments have been made for that purpose in many different places. This one goes under the appellation of Brushy Plain. Immense quantities of grouse and deer are found amidst the brushwood, with which it is covered, and which is so well calculated to afford shelter to these animals. Laws have been passed, not long since, to prevent the wanton destruction of

the deer; in consequence of which they are beginning to increase most rapidly, notwithstanding such great numbers are annually killed, as well for the New York market, as for the support of the inhabitants of the island; indeed it is found that they are now increasing in most of the settled parts of the state of New York, where there is sufficient wood to harbour them; whereas in the Indian territories, the deer, as well as most other wild animals, are becoming scarcer every year, notwithstanding that the number of Indian hunters is also decreasing; but these people pursue the same destructive system of hunting formerly practised on Long Island, killing every animal they meet, whether young or full grown. Notwithstanding the strong injunctions laid upon them by the Canadian traders, to spare some few beavers at each dam, in order to perpetuate the breed, they still continue to kill these animals wherever they find them, so that they are now entirely banished from places which used to abound with, and which are still in a state to harbour them, being far removed from the cultivated parts of the country. An annual deficiency of fifteen thousand has been observed in the number of beaver skins brought down to Montreal for the last few years.

SOIL AND CLIMATE OF SYRIA.

By Dr. Wittman.

A GENERAL idea of the climate of Syria may be formed from the following particulars:....During our stay there the thermometer, in the months of July, August, and September, marked the highest, in the afternoons, from ninety-three to ninety-five degrees of Fahrenheit. It is unnecessary to remark, that during this interval the heat was extremely oppressive to such of our party as had not been inured to the more sultry climes. The sky was, at the above season, beautifully

clear, without a cloud to obscure the wide expanse; and the atmosphere pure and benign. The greatest variation of temperature occurred in the months of October and November, when the rains came on suddenly with some degree of violence. This may properly be considered as the rainy season, since, generally speaking, during the other parts of the year a drought prevails. The very copious dews which fall in the dry months, when there is a total absence of rain, promote and forward the vegetation.

During the summer months the prevailing winds are from the north and north-west. In entering on October, they are more variable, blowing strongly from the south, south-east, and east. It is at this time that the sudden and heavy showers commence, and that the sky, which was before so uniformly clear, is overspread with dark and heavy clouds. At length, the month of November drawing towards its close, the rains cease to fall, and the weather becomes pleasant and salubrious. The result of my observations at this season was, that before sun-rise the thermometer ranged from forty-two to fifty-two and fifty-three, and that, consequently, the mornings were refreshing and cool. At noon the variations of the thermometer were from sixty-six to seventy-six, with a degree of heat which was by no means oppressive.

On the coast of Syria the sea breeze prevails during the day time, and, falling in the evening, gives place to the gentle land breeze, which continues to blow until about nine the next morning.

In the month of December, 1800, the January following, and a part of February, the weather was very tempestuous, with heavy rains, vivid lightnings, and thunders, the explosion of which was awful and tremendous. During this period the thermometer was low; and, on one occasion, the storm was accompanied by hail. The winds were usually from the south or south-west. A haziness from the southward was

the sure precursor of each of the gales, and to this indication of foul weather was superadded a remarkably large circle, or disk, round the moon. This boisterous and comparatively cold weather was highly favourable to the health of the individuals belonging to the mission. It yielded, about the 10th of February, to a more warm and settled temperature of the air, which, bestowing on the arid hills some slight degree of verdure, rendered the aspect of the country more cheerful.

Syria may in general be considered as a mountainous country; but the part bordering on Jaffa has several very extensive plains, which are intersected, at certain distances, with moderate heights. In approaching Jerusalem, after having proceeded to the other side of Ramla, the mountains are very lofty, and, having but a slender superficies of earth to cover their rocky prominences, are exclusively adapted to the cultivation of olive trees, which take root in their very clefts, and hide the naked appearance they would otherwise exhibit.

In general the country is but thinly covered with trees, and has few woods or thickets. In the parts where there is no texture of soil, but merely a white loose sand, not a tree nor shrub is to be seen.

To the north side of Jaffa, a small river, which empties itself into the sea, presents itself at the distance of two or three miles. It is the only one which I met with in Syria; it is probable, however, that others may have been formed, subsequently to the excursions I made into the interior, by the abundant falls of rain I have had occasion to notice.

From the information I was able to collect, as well as from my own personal observation, I could not learn that either mines or eruptions of volcanic matter are to be met with in Syria.

The soil in many parts, in those more especially bordering on the deserts, consists, almost exclusively, of a fine white sand, the reflection

from which is extremely painful to the sight. This barren territory extends, to the northward, beyond Jaffa. It contains, however, in common with the other parts of Syria, several fertile spots, covered with a rich black mould, which very copiously repay the labour bestowed on them. On the rocky grounds an inconsiderable portion of calcareous earth is found blended with marl.

AMADIS DE GAUL.

IN 1560, Bernardo Tasso, the father of a still more celebrated poet, published at Venice a metrical translation of Amadis, under the title "Amadigi." It consists of 100 cantos, and more than 7000 staves; and, like his "Floridante," was a popular poem in Italy, according to the account of Lodovico Dolce, even after the Italians had seen the superior efforts of his son.

The fable of this celebrated romance is not remarkably adapted for the purposes of the epic poet. There is no singleness of end and aim in the conduct of the hero, no steady, persevering, skilful, daring pursuit of some one great and important achievement. The incidents are successive adventures, not portions of a progressive event. In the Iliad, and still more in the Jerusalem Delivered, every combat is a part of the main action; it affects the relative situation of the conflicting parties; it endangers the dispersion, or consolidates the confidence, of the besiegers; it excites not only personal hopes and fears for the antagonists, but a mightier solicitude for the fortunes of the enterprise itself. But, in the life of Amadis, almost any one prominent circumstance might be omitted without being missed: each is insulated and unconnected; one adventure precedes, but does not prepare for the next; and although each is marvellous and impressive, and affords occasion for splendid description, yet the result of relating

them is likely to produce a mass, and not a whole; arms and legs, and trunk and head, but no entire body; a file or knot, rather than a groupe, of champions; a tale more of bustle than of business.

There is another fault in most of these biographic fables: we hardly preserve a sentiment of the hero's identity. In the first book Amadis is exposed an infant in a sort of floating cradle; in the second, he is in love with Oriana, and kills king after king. Now it is with epic as with dramatic poetry. So long as the imagined appearance, and disposition, and master-passion, of the heroes can, with probability, remain the same, so long we are content the poet should busy us with their affairs. The duration of the long action is not displeasing in Macbeth, or Fiesco; in the Jerusalem Delivered, or the Oberon; but it sensibly offends in the Æneid, and in the Orlando; in the Winter's Tale of Shakespeare, and in the Cid of De Castro; because a revolution actually takes place in the body or mind, which changes the pursuits and objects of the personages. In the drama, says Boileau, and justly, we cannot bear to see the hero....

"Enfant au premier acte, et barbon au dernier:"

but this dislike does not originate in its being a violation of the unity of time; it originates in its being inconsistent with the unity of action. It is a doctrine, therefore, as applicable to the *epopœia* as to the stage.

In the sixth chapter of Don Quixote, the curate and the barber undertake a scrutiny of the courteous knight's library, and condemn to the flames those books which were thought to have affected his intellects. A few, however, were held worthy of a better fate, than to increase the bonfire in the court; and among these were the four volumes of Amadis of Gaul, which Nicolas had heard say was the first book of chivalry printed in Spain, and which he is for condemning, as the foun-

dation of a mischievous system, but which the barber saves, because it is the best of the kind that had yet been composed, and *unico en su arte* ...a matchless work.

A French translation of Amadis was first made by Nicolas d'Herberay, who, in 1540, began the publication: this was afterwards prolonged to four-and-twenty books, by the additional adventures of Esplanadian, Florisando, Lisuarte, Perion, Florisel, the Amadis of Greece, Roger of Greece, and Silvio de la Silva. From the French it was translated into German, and published in folio, in 1583. The old English version, by Munday, is dated 1618. The earliest abridgment is that of mademoiselle de Lubert.

Count Tressan modernised this and other romances of chivalry, in a manner which rendered them popular novels at Paris. His delineation of queen Brisena was made to reflect a flattering likeness of the dauphiness Marie Antoinette: but he grossly violated the costume of manners and opinions, in order to introduce stimulant allusions to the personages and literature of his own times (1770 to 1780). The court of France gave a fashion to his publication; and three thousand copies were dispersed through the genteelst book-cases in Europe. Tressan pretends to prove that the original Amadis was written in what he calls the *Picard* language; that is, the Welsh *fiatois*, common to the opposite coast of Brittany and Cornwall. Had it been a story-book about Arthur, one would have listened with credulity; but every symptom points to a southern origin.

ON FEMALE EDUCATION.

By Lady M. W. Montague.

PEOPLE commonly educate their children as they build their houses, according to some plan they think beautiful, without considering whe-

ther it is suited to the purposes for which they are designed. Almost all girls of quality are educated as if they were to be great ladies; which is often as little to be expected, as an immoderate heat of the sun in the north of Scotland. You should teach yours to confine their desires to probabilities, to be as useful as is possible to themselves, and to think privacy (as it is) the happiest state of life. I do not doubt your giving them all the instructions necessary to form them to a virtuous life; but it is a fatal mistake to do this, without proper restrictions. Vices are often hid under the name of virtues, and the practice of them followed by the worst of consequences. Sincerity, friendship, piety, disinterestedness, and generosity, are all great virtues; but pursued, without discretion, become criminal. I have seen ladies indulge their own ill-humour by being very rude and impertinent, and think they deserved approbation, by saying, I love to speak truth. One of your acquaintances made a ball the next day after her mother died, to show she was sincere. I believe your own reflection will furnish you with but too many examples of the ill effects of the rest of the sentiments I have mentioned, when too warmly embraced. They are generally recommended to young people without limits or distinction, and this prejudice hurries them into great misfortunes, while they are applauding themselves in the noble practice (as they fancy) of very eminent virtues.

I cannot help adding (out of my real affection to you) that I wish you would moderate that fondness you have for children. I do not mean you should abate any part of your care, or not do your duty to them in its utmost extent; but I would have you early prepare yourself for disappointments, which are heavy in proportion to their being surprising. It is hardly possible, in such a number, that none should be unhappy; prepare yourself against a misfortune of that kind. I confess there is hardly any more difficult to

support ; yet, it is certain, imagination has a great share in the pain of it, and it is more in our power, than it is commonly believed, to soften whatever ills are founded or augmented by fancy. Strictly speaking, there is but one real evil, I mean, acute pain ; all other complaints are so considerably diminished by time, that it is plain the grief is owing to our passion, since the sensation of it vanishes when that is over.

There is another mistake I forgot to mention, usual in mothers : if any of their daughters are beauties, they take great pains to persuade them that they are ugly, or at least that they think so, which the young woman never fails to believe springs from envy, and is perhaps not much in the wrong. I would, if possible, give them a just notion of their figure, and show them how far it is valuable. Every advantage has its price, and may be either over or under valued. It is the common doctrine of (what are called) good books, to inspire a contempt of beauty, riches, greatness, &c. which has done as much mischief among the young of our sex as an over eager desire of them. Why should they not look on those things as blessings where they are bestowed, though not necessities that it is impossible to be happy without, I cannot conceive. I am persuaded the ruin of lady — was in a great measure owing to the notions given her by the good people that had the care of her. It is true, her circumstances and your daughters' are very different ; they should be taught to be content with privacy, and yet not neglect good fortune, if it should be offered them.

ON THE MEMOIRS OF A LADY OF
QUALITY, IN PEREGRINE PICK-
LE.

By the same.

I BEGUN by your direction with Peregrine Pickle. I think lady Vane's

memoirs contain more truth and less malice than any I ever read in my life. When she speaks of her own being disinterested, I am apt to believe she really thinks herself so, as many highwaymen, after having no possibility of retrieving the character of honesty, please themselves with that of being generous, because whatever they get on the road, they always spend at the next ale-house, and are still as beggarly as ever. Her history, rightly considered, would be more instructive to young women than any sermon I know. They may see there what mortifications and variety of misery are the unavoidable consequences of gallantry. I think there is no rational creature that would not prefer the life of the strictest carmelite to the round of hurry and misfortune she has gone through. Her stile is clear and concise, with some strokes of humour, which appear to me so much above her, I can't help being of opinion, that the whole has been modelled by the author of the book in which it is inserted, who is some subaltern admirer of hers. I may judge wrong, she being no acquaintance of mine, though she has married two of my relations. Her first wedding was attended with circumstances that made me think a visit not at all necessary, though I dis-oblinded lady Susan by neglecting it ; and her second, which happened soon after, made her so near a neighbour, that I rather chose to stay the whole summer in town than partake of her balls and parties of pleasure, to which I did not think it proper to introduce you ; and had no other way of avoiding it, without incurring the censure of a most unnatural mother for denying you diversions, that the pious lady Ferrers permitted to her exemplary daughters. Mr. Shirley has had uncommon fortune in making the conquest of two such extraordinary ladies, equal in their heroic contempt of shame, and eminent above their sex, the one for beauty, and the other wealth, both which attract the pursuit of mankind, and

have been thrown into his arms with the same unlimited fondness. He appeared to me gentle, well-bred, well-shaped, and sensible; but the charms of his face and eyes, which lady Vane describes with so much warmth, were, I confess, always invisible to me, and the artificial part of his character very glaring, which I think her story shows in a strong light.

ON THE MEMOIRS OF CONSTANTIA PHILIPS.

By the same.

I OPENED my eyes this morning on Leonora, from which I defy the greatest chemist in morals to extract any instruction. The style is most affectedly florid, and naturally insipid, with such a confused heap of admirable characters, that never are, or can be, in human nature. I flung it aside after fifty pages, and laid hold of Mrs. Philips, where I expected to find at least probable, if not true facts, and was not disappointed.

There is a great similitude in the genius and adventures (the one being productive of the other) between madame Constantia and lady Vane: the first-mentioned has the advantage in birth, and, if I am not mistaken, in understanding: they have both had scandalous law-suits with their husbands, and are endowed with the same intrepid assurance. Constantia seems to value herself also on her generosity, and has given the same proofs of it. The parallel might be drawn out to be as long as any of Plutarch's; but I dare swear you are already heartily weary of my remarks, and wish I had not read so much in so short a time, that you might not be troubled with my comments; but you must suffer me to say something of the polite Mr. S***, whose name I should never have guessed by the rapturous description his mistress makes of his person, having always looked

upon him as one of the most disagreeable fellows about town, as odious in his outside, as stupid in his conversation, and I should as soon have expected to hear of his conquests at the head of an army as among women; yet he has been, it seems, the darling favourite of the most experienced of the sex, which shows me I am a very bad judge of merit. But I agree with Mrs. Philips, that however profligate she may have been, she is infinitely his superior in virtue; and if her penitence is as sincere as she says, she may expect their future fate to be like that of Dives and Lazarus.

THOUGHTS ON THE OPENING OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

THE century which has recently expired, was distinguished by a variety of memorable events in the earlier part of its progress; and, in the last ten years, it exhibited perhaps a more stupendous scene than the world ever before witnessed. One circumstance has attended it through the greater part of its course; it began with war, and it terminated with war. Hence arises a melancholy reflection, that a practice which, it might be supposed, could only exist in the absence of civilization, has been found to prevail in an age of refinement, when the arts and sciences have been improved, when morality has been purified and sublimated, and religion has been in a great measure divested of bigotry and superstition. If we were not witnesses of this strange degradation of the human understanding, we should not be disposed to give credit to an absurdity so extravagant and so disgraceful. When we consider, that

.....tigris agit rabidâ cum tigride pacem
Perpetuam, sævis inter se convenit ursis....

we may naturally express our surprise, that beings of a superior order, those in whom is inherent a

portion of ethereal fire, who, though infinitely inferior to the Deity, are removed far above the level of brutes, should sink into a course of action of which mere quadrupeds might feel the folly and the iniquity. But it is useless to argue on this subject; for the advocates of human slaughter, though they affect a high degree of religion, have no idea of its genuine dictates and its legitimate impressions, and are, in the strict sense of the phrase, practical atheists. Such men imprudently call it blasphemy to declaim against war; but every man of sense and humanity will maintain a contrary opinion.

That spirit of despotism, which has ever waged war against human freedom and happiness, exerted itself at the beginning of the eighteenth century in the person of Louis XIV of France, who, not content with enslaving his subjects, encroached on the liberties of other nations, and systematically invaded the general rights of mankind. But that haughty and unfeeling tyrant, near the close of his reign, was deservedly reduced to a state of humiliation, so as to become an object of pity to contemporary princes. During his reign, however, the arts and sciences received some encouragement, more indeed from his vanity than from his taste or judgment. His death gave some repose to Europe; and the arts of peace revived. But, though his successor was of a less ambitious and more pacific disposition, he, on various pretences, embarked in unnecessary wars. At one time he laboured to crush or depress the house of Austria; at another time, he provoked Great-Britain to a rupture by encroaching on her colonial possessions. The enterprising spirit of the great Frederic of Prussia kindled also, at different periods, the flames of war; but he endeavoured to make some atonement to his people by salutary reforms and useful institutions, and by a general melioration of their state. The czarina Catharine II followed a similar

plan; and, while her ambition was prodigal of blood, her uncontrolled authority was, in many instances, subservient to the public good. The concurrence of these two potentates with the devout Maria Theresa in the partition of Poland reflected disgrace on the age on which it took place, and on the neighbouring princes who could tamely suffer such injustice to be exercised. From the affected regularity and solemnity in which the measure was enforced, it taught the nations of the world, that princes, in a refined age, could make a mockery of religion and humanity, of national independence and public privileges, and measure right by the rule of power, with a degree of iniquity equal to that of the most ferocious chieftains of barbarous times. From this scene let us turn our eyes to France, which, at the accession of Louis XVI, was in a state favourable to the progress of freedom. That monarch was humane and well-disposed, and did not wish to act the part of a tyrant; and, under his auspices, an example of reform might have been given with effect to the princes of the time, had not Great-Britain, forgetful of the principles which raised the house of Hanover to the throne, precipitated herself into a rupture with her colonial subjects. By assisting the discontented Americans, the ill-advised Louis excited among his people a strong passion for liberty; and, when he convoked the states-general of the realm, the eagerness of the public to take advantage of the opportunity led to disorder and confusion, as persons who have long been blind know not how to conduct themselves at the first glare of light. The disorder was promoted by ambitious demagogues, whose arts and intrigues kindled a flame which has not yet been extinguished. The madness of the revolutionary leaders, not being suffered to exhaust itself at home, diffused its effects over Europe; and the atrocities committed in France by a jacobin faction, under the mask of liberty, damped the ardour of the friends of rational

reform, furnished the rulers even of free nations with a pretence for strengthening the hands of government, and produced a general inclination to submit to new restraints, rather than risque the horrors of confusion and anarchy. Such seemed to be the state of the public mind at the conclusion of the eighteenth century; and such were the ill effects of a revolution, which, under judicious management, might have gradually operated to universal benefit.

In speculating on the probable changes which may attend the progress of the nineteenth century, we do not flatter ourselves or our posterity with any signal or extraordinary improvement of the general condition of mankind. Refinement has not, in a long course of ages, produced the advantages which might have been expected to flow from it: why then should we dream of any striking change which it may effect within the small compass of one hundred years? The improvement of the theory of religion and morality has not had a correspondent influence on the practice. The increasing profundity of scientific research has not been so diffusively beneficial as it might have been under proper direction. A more enlarged insight into the legitimate arts of government, a greater portion of skill in the liberal and mechanical arts, a more intimate acquaintance with the means of augmenting the accommodations of society, have not, we observe with deep but unavailing regret, been attended with the effects which such attainments seemed calculated to produce. Why then should we affect to prognosticate a speedy or a great improvement in these respects? That some changes may occur in the period to which we allude, there is no reason to doubt: but we may dispute the extent of their utility. When the agitations consequent on the storm of the French revolution shall have subsided, such a spirit of moderation may arise, as may be favourable to political improvement. While the

enormities of jacobinism may have made so strong an impression on the minds of men, that the rashness of indiscriminate reform will meet with instant opposition, princes may also become more sensible than they have hitherto been of the expediency of promoting the happiness of their subjects, not merely that of the higher classes, but of those less elevated individuals, who have as great a claim to justice and protection, to the comforts of life, and to that freedom of action which is not incompatible with the restraints of society, as the counsellors of kings and the rulers of nations. Under the auspices of patriotic and philanthropic sovereigns, the sciences which inform and enlighten, the arts which polish, the morality and devotion which purify mankind, may be more regularly pursued and more efficaciously cultivated. A more judicious system of education, founded on numerous hints recently suggested, may improve both the minds and persons of the rising generation. The passions may be more studiously repressed; the depravity which, we are taught to believe, has been inherent in human beings since the fall of their progenitor, may be more rigorously corrected. We might extend these remarks to a great length by speaking of those changes to which a sanguine zeal might look forward; but such speculations are rather the offspring of excursive fancy, than the dictates of prophecy; and it may be said, though the opinion may be thought to border on unnecessary despondence, that the improvements which we have mentioned are merely possible, not probable. Those passions which have rendered the greatest part of the world, for ages, a scene of folly, iniquity, and vice, will perhaps continue to prevail over reason and prudence, over good sense and philosophy. Let every performer on the theatre of life endeavour to act the part allotted to him with judgment and propriety; and the state of mankind will then be essentially improved: but, as such endea-

ours, from the creation of the world to the present time, have by no means been general, we have little reason to indulge the pleasing expectation. This, we allow, is not an enlivening or a flattering picture; but we earnestly wish that the prospect may brighten, and that the future scene may be arrayed in more attractive colours.

ON VOLCANIC AND NEPTUNIAN MOUNTAINS.

IN all cases where doubts may be entertained, whether a hill or mountain is volcanic or Neptunian, our judgment may be governed by the following maxims:

1. Where trap or basaltic columns appear on, or form the body of the hill or mountain, of their usual black, bluish, or greyish black colour, there the hill or mountain may be deemed Neptunian, at least so far as concerns these; such as are found on actual ignivomous mountains must have been thrown out with other Neptunian stones, but in that case they are never erect, and commonly bear some marks of heat.

2. Where masses of schistose porphyry occur, of a greyish black, ash grey, blackish blue, or greenish colour, and the felspar appear uninjured by heat, they, and the parts they repose on, are Neptunian.

3. Disintegrated or decayed porphyries, or traps, wacken, and amygdaloids, may be distinguished from indurated volcanic sand and ashes, piperino, pouzzolana, porous lava, respectively, by local circumstances, and the changes which low degrees of heat produce in them, compared with the changes which the same variations of heat occasion in the real volcanic products that resemble them. Wacken containing mica can never be ambiguous. Beds of real volcanic ashes, if ancient, are always interrupted or interceded by beds of earth, which some, without any proof, would have to be vegetable earth; and if, by

this appellation, they mean no more than earth fit for vegetation, the appellation is just; but if they mean that such earth was in all instances such as had produced vegetables, they are certainly mistaken, as Dolomieu has already noticed; this earth having been merely washed down by rain from the cinders and fragments of lava, with which it was originally mixed; wacken presents no such appearance.

Yet let us add some limitations. If a mountain be in shape conical; if it rise insulated in a comparative plain, or at least be not connected with any neighbouring chain; if the substance of that mountain differ from the surrounding strata, whatever may be its composition, if not evidently primæval, it must have been volcanic. Pseudo-volcanic hills are those which have experienced slighter or accidental fires from the neighbourhood of coal.

ON THE ROMAN STAGE, AND THE CHARACTER OF PLAUTUS.

ABOUT two hundred and twenty years before the christian æra, Plautus was born at Sarsina in Umbria. No certain tradition of his family has reached us; but vague accounts of his failure in trade, and a consequent application to the most servile offices, have been attested and contradicted by different authors.

That he was poor, from whatever cause, there seems to be no doubt; but his poverty was probably a stimulant to his genius, though it might be an enemy to the correctness of his writings.

He wrote twenty-five comedies, of which we are in possession of nineteen. His death happened about one hundred and eighty years before Christ, on which occasion his countryman Varro inscribed an epitaph on his tomb, of which the following translation may convey an imperfect idea:

The comic Muse laments her Plautus
 dead;
 Deserted theatres show Genius fled;
 Mirth, Sport, and Joke, and Poetry be-
 moan,
 And echoing myriads join their plain-
 tive tone.

He who is unwilling to decide for himself on the merits of Plautus, will probably be perplexed by the varying sentiments of critics. He will be told by some that his uniformity is such as always to have the same personages in the drama. There is always a young courtesan, an old person who sells her, a young man who buys her, and who makes use of a knavish valet to extort money from his father; a parasite of the vilest kind, ready to do any thing for his patron who feeds him; a braggadocio soldier, whose extravagant boasting and ribaldry have served as a model for the copper captains of our old comedy. To these censures he will find it added, that the style and dialogues are tasteless; that the wit is buffoonery of the lowest sort; that he was ignorant of that species of gaiety which ought to reign in comedy, and of the pleasantry properly belonging to the theatre; that these should arise naturally from the character and situation of the actor, and be conformed to them exactly; that his dialogues are long narrations, interspersed with tedious soliloquies; that his actors come in and go out without a reason; that persons who are in a great hurry continue upon the stage a full quarter of an hour; and that he introduces the lowest prostitutes with the most vulgar and indecent language and manners.

The admirers of Plautus declare him to have a fertility of invention never equalled by any writer before or since his time, together with an unrivalled judgment in the choice and conduct of his fable; that his characters are drawn from nature; and that the richest vein of ease runs through all his works; the puerality of which is accompanied not

with calm satisfaction, but with infinite delight.

When we are considering these opposite opinions, we ought to recollect that Plautus had not only a great reputation in his own time, but preserved it beyond the Augustan age. Varro says, if the Muses had spoken Latin, it would have been in the language of Plautus.... Cicero and Quintilian each afford him a high encomium, notwithstanding Terence had already written. They particularly commend his knowledge of the Latin tongue, although he wrote before the language had arrived at perfection; and the former says, that his wit is elegant, urbane, ingenious, and facetious. Horace, indeed, says, "We have admired the verses and the jests of Plautus with a complaisance which may be denominated folly." But for five hundred years Plautus was a favourite at Rome, although the language had become more polished and correct, and criticism and polite literature had made rapid strides. He must be confessed to have a fund of comic humour and gaiety; and that his imitator, Moliere, owes much of the approbation he has received to the original from which he drew his characters. In ancient comedy where shall we find more entertainment than in the *Amphitryon* and the *Menæchmi*?

Some apology may be made for the defects of Plautus, arising from the taste of the times in which he wrote. If his wit be often false, it was relished because it was the fashion of his day. A better taste in the public would have produced an exuberance of finer wit in him.

It was not allowed to comic writers to represent on the stage any mistresses but courtesans: the delicacy of true love therefore could not be exhibited by the writers of the drama. If Plautus was careless, and poor, and mercenary, the vivacity of his genius counterbalances these defects. All the business and bustle of comedy are to be found in his scenes. Variety too belongs to

him, for the incidents are equally numerous and pleasant.

He has also adapted his plays to theatrical representation; and in that respect he carries away the prize from the elegant friend of Scipio.

Such is the language of those who are admirers of Plautus; and if on a perusal of this author we are induced to think that it is the language rather of panegyric than of truth, let us not forget the thunder of applauding theatres which always attended the representation of his plays.

The general praise of his contemporaries, seconded by that of several succeeding ages of learning and of taste, is surely sufficient to disparage all the strictures of modern criticism.

If it be true that his jests are rough, and that his wit in general is coarse, bearing a similitude to the old comedy at Athens, it must be confessed that, more than any other comic writer, he has consulted his own genius; and that his strength and spirit are such as to attract and gratify the attention of every reader who is not of a disposition more than commonly fastidious.



FEMALE SWINDLER AT VIENNA.

From a late London paper.

LAST autumn, a lady, calling herself a baroness, arrived at Vienna, in a brilliant equipage, attended by four men servants and two maids. She took very elegant apartments, which she furnished in style. All her expences were paid in ready money and in gold. She was presented at court, and in the first circles, as the widow of a Prussian colonel immensely rich. In November she received a credit from a banking-house at Hambûrg, upon one of the first bankers at Vienna, for 50,000 florins. Her expences and insinuating manners, with a

tolerably good person, and the character of a widow in affluence, procured her numerous admirers and a number of suitors; amongst others several of the young nobility. She declined, however, all offers of marriage, having determined upon an eternal widowhood, in gratitude for the large fortune left her by her ever regretted husband. She went regularly to church, and to confession; was irreproachable in her conduct, and chaste in her manners and conversation. She was looked upon as a model of virtue and religion, and soon became the envy of her own sex, in becoming the admiration of the other. She was very charitable to the poor, visited often the hospitals, and subscribed largely to philanthropic institutions. The house opposite to her apartments belonged to a young man, son of a grocer, who had a very high opinion of his own person and merit, because his father had left him 300,000 florins. He addressed himself to one of her servants, to have a letter delivered to the baroness with an offer of his hand and fortune, but was repulsed with indignity. For a large present the same servant undertook again, though at the risk of losing his service, to carry another letter, which met with a less severe reception, the baroness being smitten with the person of the young man, whom at last she admitted privately into her presence, and after many prayers, sighs, tears, and presents, she agreed to give him her hand next Easter: but having refused so many great people, the young man was laid under strict secrecy, and their marriage was to be celebrated at Berlin.

In December last she received a letter, importing that her younger sister was promised to a Silesian nobleman. She consulted her secret lover, whom she had persuaded to believe that she had a fortune of 200,000 florins in the year, about the present she would make her sister on her wedding day, and it was agreed that it could not be of

less value than 60,000 florins laid out in diamonds: and as she was wanted to choose, the young man was desired to bring 200,000 worth from his uncle, a jeweller, whom she said she would pay in ready money for what she determined to keep.

The diamonds were brought in the evening, and left for her inspection, until the next day. But when the young man called at the appointed time, the servants said their mistress was ill, and could see no company before the day after: and when the duped lover then returned, he was informed that the baroness, with one of her female servants, had, 48 hours before, left the house; but previously left orders to declare her ill, if enquired after, as she was going to the Ursuline convent to make her devotions. She had indeed been there, but swindled the superior of a brilliant cross of the greatest value, which the late empress Maria Theresa had given to the statue of a miraculous virgin, and the baroness had borrowed it as a pattern for one she intended to give her sister. She had the same day been at her banker's, and, upon pretence of buying jewels for her sister's marriage, had obtained in gold and in bank notes, for bills on Hamburg, 100,000 florins more than she had credit for. It has since been found out that she had played the same tricks at Berlin, Dresden, and at Naples. Couriers have been sent every where after her, but in vain....the only information obtained is, that a lady nearly answering the description, had embarked last month at Embden, either for England or for America. It is said that her desolate and deserted lover is now on his way to this country; and if he can find her out, intends to forgive, and marry her. She is about twenty-five years of age, speaks fluently most European languages, has a fine taste for drawing, and plays the piano-forte in exquisite style.

LIST OF NEW PUBLICATIONS, IN SEPTEMBER.

Authors and publishers are requested to communicate notices of their works, post paid, and they will always be inserted, free of expence.

THE poetical Works of the late Thomas Little, Esq.....Maxwell. 1 dollar.

Elements of Life, or the Laws of Vital Matter, by John Rush, M. D.

The Truth and Excellence of the Christian Religion, in two parts; part 1, containing sketches of the lives of eminent laymen who have written in the defence of the christian religion; part 2, containing extracts from their writings, by Hannah Adams.....John West, Boston. 1 doil. 25 cents.

Letters from London, written during the years 1802 and 1803, by William Austin.....Pelham, Boston. 2 dollars.

A general History of Quadrupeds, the figures engraved on wood, chiefly copied from the original of T. Bewick, by A. Anderson.....G. & R. Waite and A. Anderson, New York.

IN THE PRESS.

Medical Theses, selected from among the inaugural dissertations published and defended by the graduates in medicine of the University of Pennsylvania, and of other medical schools in the United States, with an introduction, appendix, and occasional notes, by Charles Caldwell, M. D.....T. & W. Bradford.

TO CORRESPONDENTS.

THE editor has received many valuable communications, both in verse and prose, which did not come in due season for the present number. They shall receive due attention in our next: particularly the *Adversarian*, Valverdi, T. W....., and Sabina.